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Cheryl L. Thayer-doyle

Louisiana State University and Agricultural & Mechanical College

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FEAR OF CRIME AND WOMEN: AN ANALYSIS OF A PARADOX

The Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical Col.

Ph.D. 1986

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FEAR OF CRIME AND WOMEN: AN ANALYSIS OF A PARADOX

A Dissertation

**Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
in
The Department of Sociology**

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December, 1986

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation was prepared under the direction of Dr. William B. Bankston. To Dr. Bankston, I give my sincerest thanks for his encouragement and assistance. Additionally, I wish to extend my appreciation to other members of the Examining Committee: Dr. Quentin Jenkins, Dr. J.H. Jones, Jr., and Dr. Linda B. Stearns, all of the Department of Sociology, Dr. Brij Mohan, from the School of Social Welfare and Dr. Thomas Winfree of the Criminal Justice Department and Graduate School representative for their review of this work.

The author thanks all her fellow graduate students who have contributed to the success of the study, especially Carol Thompson. Additionally, I want to thank my friends, Marion Bihm and James Quinn, for the long hours of talking about ideas and statistics throughout our graduate program.

The Agricultural Experiment Station, Louisiana State University, is acknowledged for providing financial support for this research project and to me.

I wish also to give my utmost gratitude and thanks to my parents, Charles and Betty Thayer. They have given their encouragement, love and support through the many years of college and graduate education. For this and more, I will be eternally grateful.

Finally, and the most important, I wish to express my love and appreciation to my husband, Michael, for his encouragement, understanding, and support during the past three years.

C. T. D.

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ABSTRACT

Research indicates that sex is the most powerful predictor of fear of crime and that women have a higher level of fear than men. A paradox arises because women have a higher level of fear but are victimized less.

This dissertation examines: (1) the underlying dimensions of fear and the specific offenses that evoke fear in men and women; (2) selected social and demographic characteristics and their relationship to a criterion variable; and (3) the effect the fear of rape contributes to the differences in the level of fear between men and women.

The data was taken from a larger study of victimization, fear, crime, and attitudes toward crime conducted in Louisiana during the summer of 1984. The sample was statewide and derived from drivers' license holders in Louisiana. Of the number delivered, 1850 questionnaires, or 49.8 percent, were returned.

Factoring the 15 offenses produced an underlying dimension of fear of crime consisting of two factors, composed of property crimes and personal/violent crimes. The first factor reflects a more generalized notion of fear. The second factor consists of variables which can be strongly associated with personal crime and are identified

as crimes of personal, unavoidable harm.

The criterion variable (Factor 2) was the dependent variable in a regression equation with age, income, race, education, community size, marital status, and previous victimization, controlling for sex. Age was associated with the dependent variable for both sexes. Income, community size, education, and previous victimization were associated at the .05 level for women. To determine the difference in the level of fear between men and women, a MCA controlling for sex, indicated that when the fear of rape was introduced as a covariant, there was no difference between men and women. Because fear of rape interacts with the dependent variable, each offense composing the dependent variable was examined separately using a MCA and compared with the fear of rape. The results indicated that while the fear of murder and burglary while at home explain more variance, the fear of rape shows a greater change in attitude. Implications of the findings are elaborated, and needed directions for further research are discussed.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

I. JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

Traditionally, the dominant thrust of criminological research has focused upon criminal acts and their perpetrators. In the late 1960's researchers began to focus more of their studies upon the victim and victimization. One significant aspect of victimization research has been the description of the fear of victimization and general demographic correlates of fear (Braungart et al., 1980; Yin, 1980).

Previous research regarding the fear of victimization has indicated that sex is the most consistent and the most powerful predictor of fear. That is, women generally report experiencing a higher level of fear than men. However, at least one paradox emerges in examining the relationship between these levels of fear and reported victimization rates. According to the 1983 Criminal Victimization Report (1985), white males suffered a victimization rate of 39.2 (per 1000) for violent crimes. For white females the rate was only 21.3. For blacks the corresponding rates were 50.2 for males and 32.8 for females. While women are less victimized in most categories of reported crime than men,

victimized in most categories of reported crime than men, they are, nevertheless, more fearful (Biderman et al., 1967; Garofalo, 1977; Clemente and Kleiman, 1977; and Braungart et al., 1980). There are several reasons why women may experience a higher level of fear: 1) physically, women are less powerful, making them more vulnerable (Stinchcombe et al., 1977; and Hindelang et al., 1978); 2) women are more likely targets of sexual assaults, often causing mental anguish and/or serious injury (Hindelang et al., 1978); and 3) as some researchers suggest, women are socialized into passive, submissive, or male-dominated sex roles which contributes to their feelings of vulnerability (Garofalo, 1977; Weiss and Borges, 1973; Gordon and Riger, 1978; and Lawton et al., 1976). As a consequence of this fear, women may alter some behaviors and, subsequently, reduce their likelihood of victimization (Warr, 1985).

Although fear of crime has remained a topic of interest for almost two decades, much theoretical progress remains to be made in advancing the knowledge in this area. It has been suggested that the state of knowledge of a discipline is reflected by the type of research that has been conducted (Baumer, 1978). To illustrate this point, Baumer (1978:254) points out that the "[d]ata . . . on fear is almost exclusively limited to either national public opinion polls or to surveys designed to evaluate specific crime reduction programs." Typically, the former has used "global" measures

of fear (e.g., "I feel safe going anywhere in my community at night."), while the latter has designed surveys to evaluate programs on crime reduction. Thus, the measurement of fear has been treated as a secondary goal. In addition to the types of research conducted on fear, Warr and Stafford (1983:1033) suggest that some of the research has been based on some untested assumptions about fear because the proximate cause of fear seems too obvious to merit discussion. For example, it is assumed a person is afraid when the likelihood of victimization is great. Still further, McIntyre (1967:37) suggests that researchers have agreed that "crimes of violence . . . are the focus of most people's fears." Yet, as has been demonstrated by official statistics, most Americans are aware that the risk of being murdered or experiencing other violent crimes is less than the risk of being a victim of a property offense (DuBow et al., 1979)

It is apparent that intuition, rather than empirical research has guided much of the research on fear. Clearly more research is needed into the kinds of fear, physical or property victimization, people may be experiencing and who is experiencing a particular kind of fear. More specifically, previous research indicates a relationship between a greater level of fear and women, while the specific offenses that contribute to the level of fear in women and men remain unknown. Further, since women are

victimized less than men but are more fearful, there may be differences between the sexes in what provokes fear. The primary focus of the research reported here is to examine why women have more fear than men. To understand fear is to see what kinds of crimes provoke fear, thus contributing to the knowledge of those who are actively working in crime-related areas.

II. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

The present research adds to the body of knowledge on fear of victimization in four ways. First, it is one of a few studies to examine fear of crime utilizing a number of offenses for determining which offenses people fear rather than the global measure traditionally used. Secondly, this research examines specific social and demographic characteristics of which groups of people are more likely to express a greater level of fear of crime. Although previous research has examined differing aspects of "who" is likely to fear crime, to date none has used a state-wide sample and specific offenses to explain the types of crimes people fear. Thirdly, this research, utilizing factor analysis, identifies those crimes people fear most, excluding rape. Finally, this research uses a specific offense, rape, to explain why women experience a greater level of fear than men, rather than just noting that the level of fear may be greater.

III. GENERAL OBJECTIVES

This study addresses three issues. These are:

1. to identify the underlying dimensions of fear, excluding the fear of rape controlling for sex. That is, to identify fear-evoking offenses for men and women;
2. to determine the relationship of race, income, marital status, education, community size and previous victimization experience to one underlying dimension of fear; and
3. to identify the effect of the fear of rape in contributing to the differences between men and women in their reported level of fear.

The details of the implementation of these objectives are given in the ensuing chapters.

IV. ORGANIZATION

The remainder of this dissertation is divided into four chapters. Perspectives on fear, Chapter II, addresses the literature relevant to this study. Chapter III includes the methodological techniques utilized in this research. The analysis of the data, and the summary and implications appear in Chapters IV and V, respectively.

CHAPTER II

PERSPECTIVES ON FEAR

I. INTRODUCTION

Research on fear of crime has focused upon the characteristics which induce fear. The resulting evidence indicates that individual characteristics, such as being a victim, female, and poor, and one's living arrangements contribute to higher levels of fear experienced by the individual. Other research has examined the role of the surrounding environment, situational factors, especially the urban environment as a contributor to the increase in fear.

A discussion of the research literature relevant to this study is included in this chapter. The material presented has been divided into the following sections: the nature of fear; fear and types of crimes; and correlates of fear.

II. THE NATURE OF FEAR

Goldsmith and Goldsmith (1976) suggest that the actual threat of victimization and the perceived threat of victimization are two separate aspects of the crime problem. Fear of crime results from a perceived threat. However, the fear of crime lacks conceptual clarity and operational preciseness. Furstenburg (1971) warns that the fear of

crime should not be confused with the concern about rising crime in general. He further indicates that fear of crime is a reverberation from social disorder or a resultant of social change.

The notion of fear has taken on a variety of definitions and finds its roots in psychological and social psychological literature. Sarnoff and Zimbardo (1961: 356-357) appear to have guided our more current interpretation of fear.

When our motives [tensions producing stimulus that provokes behavior designed to reduce tensions] are aroused, we experience subjective reactions to which we learn, over time, to attach commonly agreed labels that signify the various emotions. ...The motive of fear is aroused whenever persons are confronted by an external object or event that is inherently dangerous or likely to produce pain.

Baumer (1978) describes fear as an emotional reaction to stress and suggests that the fear of crime results when an individual lacks specific, objective knowledge about crime conditions and subsequently assesses the relative danger of the surroundings. Richard Lazarus (1966) proposed a theory emphasizing the psychological stress and subsequent coping behaviors that resulted from assessing that threat. Furstenburg (1971:601) states that "fear of crime is the symptom of the silent majority's lashing back." Sundeen and Mathieu (1976:214) state that the fear of crime is "the amount of anxiety and concern that persons have of being a victim." Finally, DuBow et al. (1979:1) generally indicate that "[f]ear of crime refers to a wide variety of subjective

and emotional assessments and behavioral reports."

As a result of this lack of clarity regarding the definition of fear of crime, research findings about the causes of fear are difficult to interpret unless the definition of "fear" is known (Conway, n.d.). This lack of preciseness may also contribute to the differences found between studies.

Another ambiguity which arises in studying the fear of crime is found in the use of the concept of crime. To the lay person, crime simply means activity which is illegal at the location at which it occurs. In the literature, however, lack of clarity and, often, specificity obscure the meaning of the word. For example, crime is traditionally studied in a general context (e.g. "Do you think the crime rate is rising in your community?") In this same vein, a class of crimes is sometimes addressed, particularly "street crimes" (e.g. "Do you feel safe on the street in your community?"). Finally, more recent studies have examined perceptions of specific crimes such as, robbery, burglary and murder. Dubow et al. (1979:2) state that as "law enforcement agencies are finding that analysis of specific types of crime is a more productive means of using crime information, it is also likely that an investigation of the degree to which perceptions and reaction vary with specific types of crimes may be productive."

In this research, the fear of crime is defined by

examining the participants' responses to specific offenses. Respondents were asked "...how afraid you are about becoming the victim of each type of crime in your everyday life during the next 12 months" (see Appendix B). This reduces the lack of clarity regarding the type of crime envisioned by the respondent and allows for measuring the level of fear toward a specific crime.

III. FEAR AND TYPES OF CRIMES

Although the concepts of fear and crime are ambiguous, it is likely that respondents usually have specific kinds of crimes, location of criminal activities, and stereotypes of criminals in mind when responding to general questions of fear. Some crimes produce more fear than others. However, the types of crimes producing the most fear, of course, may vary over time, and between places and social groupings. Thus, reducing the frequency of certain crimes will have a greater effect on reducing the fear of crime, and programs aimed at selected subgroups in the population will have a greater effect than a buckshot effort to reduce crime in general.

In 1967, the President's National Crime Commission reported that only crimes against persons appeared to have any direct impact upon the fear of crime. Although the number of property crimes in this survey exceeded the number of personal victim-offender contact, the attitudinal impact from property crime reported was slight. Similar findings

were reported from a survey of victimization and attitudes conducted by the United States Census Bureau in 1973 in the nation's five largest cities, New York, Los Angeles, Chicago, Philadelphia and Detroit. The only exception noted was burglary, which appeared to have psychological consequences similar to personal crime. The incidence of property crime affected the respondent's perceptions of the amount of crime in their neighborhood, but not their personal reactions to it (cf. Skogan, 1976). Skogan (1977) selected a sub-sample of 23,500 respondents from the Census Bureau survey and examined the correlation between victimization measures and two measures of fear (walking on the streets of their neighborhood during the day and at night). He reports (1977:8) that victimization by rape, robbery, personal theft (pocket picking and purse snatching), and burglary were related to the fear of crime, while auto theft, simple larceny and assault [author notes that this variable may have been inadequately measured] were not related to fear. He further notes that the impact of victimization upon the fear of crime varies from group to group and suggests that those feeling physically more vulnerable, and those unable to bear the consequences of crime were more afraid. Specifically, women who were victimized by personal crime, those people with incomes of less than \$10,000 per year, and those over 30 years of age experienced higher levels of fear of personal crime.

Rainwater (1966) suggests that the importance of burglary in structuring attitudes is not surprising in that burglary is a crime that violates one of the most important sources of personal security - home walls. He notes that "home-as-haven" plays an important psychological role in maintaining a person's sense of security and order, especially for low income people who cannot leave high-crime neighborhoods. However, people at higher socio-economic levels generally express less fear of personal crime than people at lower socio-economic levels (cf. Ennis, 1967).

Generally, violent crimes generate a higher level of fear (President's Commission, 1967) although it is the vision of "street crimes" which pervade perceptions of the nature of crimes. However, when reported fear of burglary is probed further, respondents indicate that it is the potential for violence which produces their anxiety (DuBow et al., 1979). For example, a study conducted by Patterson (1977) indicated that elderly women have a greater fear of being robbed or assaulted than elderly men. Conklin (1975) draws the conclusion that by judging the types of precautions that people take, they seem to fear personal attacks more than the loss of property through theft.

Butler (1975:300) stated that "old people are victims of violent crime more than any other group" and this perspective has held credibility in the popular press, despite the lack of empirical support. Janson and Ryder

(1983) indicate that this lack of empirical support has been reinterpreted by scholars into the notion that for the elderly it is a problem of fear of victimization rather than victimization itself.

It has been argued that the fear of crime is generated more through indirect means than by direct victimization. Measures of direct victimization do not explain much of the variations in measures of the fear of crime, as many people express great fear and are actually victimized less. It has been further suggested that the fear of crime is most often fear of the stranger (Merry, 1980; Skogan and Maxfield, 1981). Skogan (1977) goes further and suggests that fear of crime is a product of a number of other fears and aggravations of big city residents. He suggests that it is the fear of strangers, their unpredictability, their motives, or their actions that contribute to the level of fear, and, as a result, the fear of crime is intermingled with racial fears and class-linked differences in behavior.

Most people do not expect serious crime to happen in their neighborhood, especially violent crimes. However, urban residents do have different expectations about the nature of crime in the neighborhood compared with rural and suburban residents. McIntyre (1967) observed that central city residents were more anxious about personal crime happening to them, while residents of other kinds of

neighborhoods were more likely to expect some type of property crime. Boggs (1971) found that the majority of central city residents felt that serious crimes were likely to happen in their neighborhood and that there was an equal probability that crime was likely to be a personal (robbery or attempted rape) crime as a property offense (burglary or larceny). She further notes that most rural and suburban residents felt that serious violent crimes were unlikely and suburbanites were less sure about the likelihood of burglary and larceny. Fear of crime, however, varies independently of the expectation of the occurrence of crime.

In conclusion, research indicates that people generally experience more fear of personal victimization than of property victimization with the exception of burglary. Being female, elderly, poor, and living in an urban area generally contribute to a higher level of reported fear. Therefore, all things being equal, the following association should hold: there should be a two factors of fear where one is composed of property crimes, with the exception of burglary while at home and the second consists of personal/violent crime, including burglary while at home, compose separate factors of fear-evoking offenses.

IV. CORRELATES OF FEAR

One of the major developments in the last two decades has been the realization that the social consequences of crime are not limited just to those who are victimized. This notion can also be applied to the fear of crime, because the number of fearful people exceeds the number of victims during any given period (Hindelang et al., 1978; Skogan and Maxfield, 1981). Like victimization, fear and the consequences of fear are real, measurable, and potentially severe (cf. Conklin, 1975; Dubow et al., 1979; Skogan and Maxfield, 1981).

There are several correlates of fear examined in this work. These are sex, age, race, education, income, marital status, community size, and previous victimization experience.

Sex:

Men and women both experience crime and fear of crime. However, the effects of this experience are more intense for women than for men. In fact, most research indicates that sex is the most consistent and powerful predictor of fear. That is, despite the substantially lower victimization rates for women in most crime categories, they experience higher levels of fear than men (Erskine, 1974; Biderman et al., 1967; Boland, 1976; Garofalo, 1977; Clemente and Kleiman, 1976, 1977; Braungart et al., 1980). Furthermore, sex appears to be more important than other socio-demographic predictors such as age, race and income (Cook et

al., 1982). To some extent, the differences between the sexes in survey responses on the fear of crime have been explained by the unwillingness of men to admit to such fear due to "machismo" or basic cultural expectations of male behavior. If we assume that part of the traditional American role model places a negative evaluation on any display of fear, then it is logical to expect that males will express less fear of crime than females, regardless of objective risk of victimization and actual feelings of fear. However, precautions taken against crime indicate that there is a generally higher level of fear experienced by women.

In fact, in addition to sex role differences between males and females, there are also physical strength differences which make women more vulnerable (cf. Dubow et al., 1979; Riger et al., 1978). Further, research indicates that women are most frequently victimized by men, (Dodge et al., 1976), thereby linking criminal encounters to general patterns of interaction between the sexes. Women are also more likely to know their attackers than men, and are more subject to crimes such as rape and wife abuse (U.S. Department of Justice, 1980; Weiss and Borges, 1973). Finally, in recent years, feminists have pointed out that some non-violent forms of interaction generate fear and leave women feeling victimized. These include obscene telephone calls, sexual harassment at work or verbal abuse on the street (Medea and Thompson, 1974).

There is probably no crime that induces more fear in women than does rape, a crime which is selectively borne by women. Official data regarding rape is disclaimed by the reporting agencies (cf. Federal Bureau of Investigation, 1980; Williams, 1984) and self-report victimization rates are subject to an unknown amount of error (Hindelang and Davis, 1977; Johnson, 1980).

Legally, rape is even more distinctive. Unlike other violent crimes (murder, assault, etc.), rape, because of the status of women as property, has been treated as a property crime (Brownmiller, 1975; Sanders, 1980). Aside from the legal treatment of rape, socially this crime has been defined in many ways and is accompanied by disagreements as to what constitutes "real" rape (Sanders, 1983).

Rape may be more fear-inducing because it is believed to be linked with gratuitous violence, in addition to the act of rape, and that rape is impossible to resist successfully. Brownmiller (1975) has emphasized that rape is a crime which affects all women, regardless of whether they are actually victimized. It is argued by feminists that "the fear of rape keeps women off the streets at night. . . . [R]ape and fear of rape are a daily part of every woman's consciousness." (Griffin, 1971:21).

Several studies have sought to examine the prevalence and causes of fear of rape, as well as the consequences of the fear of rape. Brodyaga et al. (1975) found that rape

ranked second only to murder for women. Stinchcomb et al. (1980) note that rapes often take place over several days or hours and there is more opportunity for injury. Further, research indicates that rape victims are more likely to be otherwise injured (Hindelang et al., 1978); that is, many of the physical injuries are cuts and bruises; however, they are accompanied by emotional damage. Riger et al. (1978) report that over 50 percent of women and over one-third of the men interviewed in a National Crime Survey believe that emotional damage to the victim was the worst aspect of a rape (cf. Burgess and Holmstrom, 1974; Katz and Mazur, 1979).

Rape is a crime that is not limited to urban populations (Flannagan and McLeod, 1983). However, much of the information gained about rape, fear of rape and its consequences, has been obtained from urban populations. The higher rates of rape in urban populations do suggest that rape has a special importance to urban women.

If the fear of crime is an accumulation of fear of specific crimes, then women have an additional crime which rarely affects men. Stinchcomb (1977) argues that rape produces more fear than other crimes, such as robbery, because the chance of death is greater and spread over a longer period of time. Moreover, the likelihood of rape also raises notions of serious injury (Hindelang et al., 1978). Finally, another characteristic that may cause women

to be more fearful is the location in which rape occurs. Generally, research indicates that women find their own neighborhoods relatively safe, with safety decreasing as distance from home increases (Riger et al., 1978). Additionally, it has been found that women can identify a place within two blocks of their home that they consider dangerous and where potential rapes might occur (Riger et al., 1978).

In a 1977 study conducted by Gordon and Riger (1978), 299 urban women and 67 men were interviewed in Chicago, Philadelphia and San Francisco (3-city aggregate sample). Women were asked to perceive their risk of being raped or otherwise assaulted in their neighborhood. These authors note that women who perceived a high risk of rape in their neighborhoods are more fearful than those who think such risk is low. They further note that men's fear levels also are associated with their perceptions of a woman's risk of rape in the neighborhood. Finally, they report that men's estimate of women's risk of rape are higher than reported by women. Riger and Gordon (1980:44) conclude that "...rape may be a 'bellwether' crime against which both men and women judge the general criminal environment in their communities." Further, some research indicates that there is a high correlation between the rate of rape and the rates of other violent crimes (Bowker, 1978:120). Subsequently, Riger et al. (1981) suggest it is the multiplicity of crimes

involving personal confrontations that women perceive that contribute to their perceiving their environment as dangerous.

In a 1981 mail survey of Seattle, Warr (1985) examined the fear of rape among urban women. The initial respondents for the survey were selected from the Seattle telephone book. The sample of women obtained was 181 with an under representation of blacks in general, and particularly black women. His findings (241-242) indicate generally that 52 percent of the women sampled could be described as fearful. Additionally, a follow-up, open-ended question was presented later in the questionnaire: "Is there a particular kind of crime that you fear more than others?" The results indicated that for women under 35, 64 percent of those citing a particular crime, specified rape. Rape was reported less frequently as age increased beginning with 38 percent for women 36-50 years of age to a low of 28 percent for women over 66.

Warr (1985) points out that, as the age of women increases their ranking of this particular offense with other offenses decreases. He found that for women less than 35 years old, rape is feared more than any other offense; between 36 to 50 it ranks second; it ranks fourth for women 51 to 65, and declines to the ninth position for women 66 and older. The lower ranking for rape among elderly women is rationalized as a response to an increasing fear of other

offenses among older women not to an absolute decline in fear of rape (Warr:241). What is apparent is that rape is currently a central fear in the lives of a large proportion of women.

Using a multiplicative model of fear, perceived seriousness and perceived risk of victimization, Warr (1985:243) found the high level of fear that is associated with rape originates from the fact that, "1) it is perceived to be extremely serious, and 2) ... it is found to be relatively likely" [risk]. Probing still further, the fear of rape was examined using the concept of sensitivity (measured by the slope) to risk. When risk is held constant, younger women display more fear than older women; however, the slope is strong for women in each age group. Additionally, he notes that fear reaches the top of the scale before perceived risk reaches a maximum. He concludes (Warr, 1985:244) that "[w]hen it comes to rape, then, a little risk goes a long way in producing fear."

When rape was examined with other offenses, including robbery, fraud, assault, murder and others (cf. Warr, 1984), the findings indicate that rape is not perceived as an isolated event, but is an event that may be resultant of other serious offenses. Consequently, the fear of other violent offenses contributes to the fear of rape experienced by women. Warr (1984:246) concludes by indicating that, although the fear of other violent offenses can be separated

from fear of rape, it is best viewed as contributing to the fear of rape.

To summarize, the causes of fear of crime among women, as among men, are multiple. The pattern of criminal violence against women is generally similar to that against men with certain exceptions, most notably rape, which is likely to have an important effect on women's reactions to crime.

On the one hand, Bowker (1978) suggests that rape is the result of several factors, including urbanization and the associated geographic mobility, impersonality, anonymity, bystander apathy, an abundance of available victims, and personal problems of the rapist. Moreover, he rejects the feminist argument that rape serves as a means of social control of women.

On the other hand, we know that women are more likely to be the subjects of rape and are more likely to know their attackers. Women also are more likely to be the victims among those who are assaulted by their spouses. Additionally, most female victims are attacked by male offenders. Thus, the pattern of crime against women may indicate the inequitable distribution of power in society and reinforce male dominance when violence, actual or implied, is levied against women.

It has been suggested that it is a woman's greater vulnerability to rape that contributes to the higher level

of fear of crime. It is not the purpose of this paper to examine the motives of rapists or why women are raped. It is the purpose of this paper to examine the disparity between the levels of fear experienced by women and men, and, more specifically, to determine if the "fear of rape" contributes to the greater level of fear experienced by women. Thus it is expected that women will have a higher level of fear of crime than men and the fear of rape will contribute to that disparity.

Age:

During the last decade, the proportion of the elderly population has been increasing more rapidly than ever before. At the same time, there is evidence that real or imagined alarm over crime is growing. The media has devoted attention to victimization among the elderly, with reports of the rape of elderly women, gangs of youths robbing and beating elderly people, as well as case studies that the elderly are so frightened over crime they are taking tranquilizers, willing to pay extortion, or locking themselves in their homes and apartments (Cunningham, 1974; Goldsmith and Thomas, 1974).

Discussions or gossip about crime in the neighborhood may also affect the level of fear. Talk about crime may be stimulated by the notion that the local crime problem is serious and those people with stronger ties to the community tend to speak more to their neighbors about such problems

(Skogan, 1977; Skogan and Maxfield, 1981). It is the stories about the elderly and women that tend to circulate, even though they are victimized less frequently. Skogan and Maxfield (1981) suggest that these stories may be focused upon because they are norm-breaking and, consequently, newsworthy. Further, these stories may contribute to a greater level of fear because they may indicate a community's lack of social control. Additionally, Heath et al. (1981) suggest that crime stories tend to generate a greater fear in persons who see themselves as similar to victims. Consequently, women and the elderly may be more fearful and have an exaggerated view of the likelihood of victimization.

Contrary to this argument, Rifai (1976) found an inverse relationship between fear of crime and the extent of social interaction among the elderly. Cumming and Henry (1966:15) state that "aging is an inevitable mutual withdrawal or disengagement, resulting in decreased interaction between the aging person and others in the social systems he belongs to." With the subsequent reduction of interaction in the community, the individual's movements may become unnoticed, and therefore the risk of victimization increases (Singer, 1977:78). Gubrium (1974) further notes that it is the lack of social interaction that magnifies fear because the support necessary in coping with fears or actual problems is absent.

Generally, studies have indicated that there is a direct relationship between age and fear; that is, with increasing age, people experience a higher level of fear (Boland, 1976; Dubow et al. 1979; Rosenthal, 1969). Herein lies a second paradox: that of a lower victimization rate with a higher level of reported fear of crime. Specifically, the elderly have especially strong fears about being murdered or raped, although research indicates that there is a very low probability they will be victims of these violent acts (Dussich and Eichman, 1976; Hindelang, 1976). Repetto (1972) observes that the amount of time a person spends at home is inversely related to the risk of victimization. Consequently, the elderly are less likely to be victimized because they are at home more often. In fact, there is an inverse relationship between victimization and age (Goldsmith and Thomas, 1974; Clemente and Kleiman, 1977). Further, Gubrium (1974) has emphasized that the extremely low victimization rate among the elderly is not widely known. As a result, the elderly are more apprehensive about their likelihood of becoming victims of crime, as well as their ability to handle a threatening situation (Lawton et al., 1976). It has been suggested that the fear of crime has become as serious as crime itself (Goldsmith and Thomas, 1974; Maltz, 1973).

The fear of crime restricts elderly people's freedom of movement and diminishes the quality of life, and, as aging

increases, it limits their social interaction and activities, and increases their dissatisfaction (Goldsmith and Thomas, 1974; Lebowitz, 1975; Cunningham, 1974; Goldsmith and Goldsmith, 1976; Jacobs, 1975; Mazur, 1979). It has been argued that, regardless of absolute risk, the elderly feel that if they were to be confronted by an offender, they would, because of diminished physical capacity, be unable to defend themselves (Kimmel, 1974; Botwinick, 1973; Lawton et al., 1976; Shanas, 1971; von Hentig, 1948; Repetto, 1972) and, as a result of an attack, they might be more likely to sustain an injury than would a younger person and this injury could have more debilitating consequences. The elderly are economically vulnerable in that they hold their possession of accumulated wealth (von Hentig, 1948). Schafer (1968:66) points out that older women may be exposed to higher risks because some keep their money and possessions in their homes. In neighborhoods which undergo change, elderly people, who are less mobile than young people, observe a considerable moving in and out and find themselves in a neighborhood of strangers. As a result of this lack of neighborhood stability, the elderly may experience feelings of isolation and fear (Hindelang, et al., 1978; Greer, 1962; see also Goldsmith and Goldsmith, 1976). Psychological vulnerability is the fear of victimization perceived in terms of the offender and the consequence of his actions. For example, in Boston,

(Mayor's Safe Street Advisory Committee, 1974), elderly victims in public housing fail to report victimization to the police because of potential retaliation. Older people may be more fearful of crime which may be partially caused by the fact that not much value is placed on the aged in American society. Subsequently, the aged may lose some of their feelings of self-esteem and self-worth (Riley and Waring, 1976). Finally, structural vulnerability increases the risk that an elderly person will be victimized. Structural vulnerability is related to the physical surroundings that may increase the likelihood of victimization, including the lack of bright lights, burglar proof locks (Newman, 1972; Jacobs, 1961) and living on the first floor of an apartment building (Repetto, 1972). Most empirical studies report that the level of fear of crime experienced by the elderly, compared with other age groups, is not significantly different (Lebowitz, 1975; Clemente and Kleiman, 1976, 1977).

Empirical research indicates that there appears to be a higher level of fear among elderly women. However, other characteristics, such as being black, living in an urban area, or being an older person living alone, may be better predictors of fear among the elderly than sex (Clemente and Kleiman, 1976, 1977; Lebowitz, 1975; Sundeen and Mathieu, 1976). Specifically, descriptive studies suggest that: 1) elderly black people are more apprehensive about walking in

their neighborhoods than elderly whites; 2) the smaller the community size, the less likely the elderly reported fearfulness; and 3) elderly people living with other people reported less fear than the elderly who live alone (Clemente and Kleiman, 1976, 1977; Erskine, 1974; Lebowitz, 1975; Mullins, 1978; Sundeen and Mathieu, 1976). According to Lebowitz (1975), even though a majority of women of all ages indicated a fear of crime, in most cases, less than a third of men at each age level reported similar feelings of fearfulness. Specifically, Hindelang et al., (1978) in their eight cities research, found that males at each age level expressed much less fear than females. Additionally, the fear of crime tended to be greater for old people of both sexes (cf. Garofalo, 1975; Clemente and Kleiman, 1976). Further, fear of crime was less strongly related to age among females than among males.

Examining fearfulness and age still further, Braungart et al. (1980) postulated that elderly people are characterized by a high level of fear because this category is predominately composed of females. Their results indicate that, at all age levels, females experience a greater level of fear (59% to 64%), while only 32% of elderly males experience fearfulness. Moreover, through increasing age categories, the percentage of males experiencing fear steadily increases culminating in a percentage that is double the "youth" category.

Thus, research does indicate that the level of fear of crime among the elderly is higher than younger age groups. However, elderly women have reported experiencing higher levels of fear than elderly men. Therefore, the expectation for this research is that age will be related to the level of fear reported.

Race:

It has been noted (Reiss, 1967) that for all major crimes against the person, blacks have a higher probability of being victimized than whites. Feagin (1970) found that blacks were more afraid of victimization, and consequently were more likely to arm themselves to defend themselves and to defend their homes against criminals. With regard to fear of victimization, the evidence indicates that blacks experience a higher level of fear of victimization.

Further, Biderman et al. (1967) found that blacks in the Washington, D. C. area scored higher on a crime anxiety scale than whites.

Hindelang et al. (1978) found that blacks (55%) experienced a higher level of fear of crime in their own neighborhoods than whites (40%). When these responses were broken down by race and income, they found that these two variables were independently related to each other; that is, fear of crime decreased as income increased in each racial group. They further found that blacks, at higher income levels, still experienced a greater level of fear of crime

than whites (cf. Garofalo, 1977). The suggested rationale for this was that racial segregation restricts the housing market of blacks, regardless of their income (Hindelang et al.: 1978; Taeuber, 1968; Erbe, 1975). This rationale suggests further that income is a better indication of residence among whites than blacks.

Similarly, Patterson (1977) found that race and income were significant factors in the fear of crime. Less than 25 percent of the whites, as compared with 43 percent of the blacks indicated that the fear of crime was a serious problem. For both blacks and whites, the fear of being robbed or attacked on the street was associated with income. The major criticism of this work lies in the fact that the researcher did not clearly measure fear of crime but fear of crime as a serious problem. Further, it would appear that robbery and assault were the only specific offenses used to measure crime.

In the same vein, Ennis (1967), using data from the national victimization survey conducted for the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice in 1967 reported similar findings, in that fear of walking alone at night in "the neighborhood" was related to income among whites, but not blacks. Hindelang (1974:103-105) further substantiated these results. That is, fear of walking alone at night in the immediate area is related to sex, race and age.

In addition, Braungart et al. (1980) found that race was an important factor in differentiating fearful citizens from the others. They report that middle-aged and elderly, black women were more likely to report fear of walking in their neighborhood than their white counterparts. Conversely, young black males, young white males and young black females report the least amount of fear, respectively. Thus, it was concluded that "[r]ace appears to have considerable explanatory usefulness characterizing fearful versus non-fearful persons, with much stronger age differences for blacks when compared to whites" (Braungart et al., 1980:61).

On the other hand, Riger et al. (1978) generally did not find race to be associated with a higher level of fear. However, when respondents were asked if they feared for the safety of other members of their household, higher levels of fear were associated with being Latino or black.

To summarize, although much of the research indicates that race and fear of crime are positively associated, at least one more recent study (Riger et al., 1978) suggests that race may not be associated with a higher level of fear. Additionally, characteristics, such as low income and age differences, may be more useful in describing the relationship of fear of crime among blacks as compared with whites. Moreover, most of the research on fear of crime reported in the literature generally uses a global measure

of fear of crime - afraid of walking alone in the neighborhood at night. This research will be able to examine the fear of crime for specific offenses by race. Thus, it is expected that race will not be associated with a higher level of fear.

Income:

It has been noted that there is a direct relationship between property crimes and socio-economic status, and an inverse relationship between violent (personal) crimes and socio-economic status. Generally, however, individuals in higher income levels experience the lowest rate of victimization (Erskine, 1974). Similarly, Clemente and Kleiman (1976) report roughly the same findings in that respondents at higher income levels express less fear of crime. They also examined this effect with regard to age and found that while income is a determining factor of fear, it is more important for the non-aged than the aged.

In a study conducted by Hindelang et al. (1978), it was found that whites at each higher income level reported experiencing less fear of crime in their neighborhood (cf. Gallup, 1974; Biderman, 1967). Clemente and Kleiman (1977) reported finding similar results; however, they indicate that income is less of a predictor than either sex or community size.

Income does not appear to be a variable typically examined with regard to the fear of crime. The results that

are available indicate that income is not a good predictor of the level of fear of crime, but in association with other characteristics, such as age, may have more importance. Therefore, income will be associated to higher levels of fear of crime.

Community Size:

It has been taken for granted that urban areas are the "breeding ground" for crime, while rural communities are seen as bucolic refuges from urban crime problems and bastions of law and order, with high social cohesion. Thus, rural areas are seen as relatively "free" of serious crime problems.

Carter (1982) suggests that this image of rural crime has been perpetuated by criminologists who have based their notions of criminal behavior on urban research. Further, he suggests that a systematic analysis on the extent and nature of rural crime has not been conducted. However, one continuous source of crime data in the United States has been the Uniform Crime Reports. Generally, these statistics indicate that the rural crime rate, particularly the property crime rate, has shown a consistently greater increase than the urban crime rate since 1968 (Carter, 1982). Consequently, there has been a growing awareness about crime as a problem among rural people. This awareness of rural crime has been evidenced by the growing concern expressed by leaders of rural and farm organizations (Cheatham, 1979;

Dogin, 1980; Footlick, 1977; Anderberg, 1980).

Additionally, this awareness has led to an increase in rural victimization research (cf. Carter et al., 1982), but few results are available with regard to the fear of crime.

However, urban areas are considered to be a frightening experience. There are higher crime rates in urban areas than there are in rural areas (Lee, 1982:656). Thus, it has been reasoned that urban dwellers have a greater reason to fear crime. It has been further argued that the media discussion of crime (Sacco, 1982), as well as a general concern about victimization (Garofalo, 1979), has contributed to the level of fear. The evidence in this regard is not entirely conclusive. Some researchers report that rural areas are believed to be much safer than urban ones (Conklin, 1975); others have reported evidence to the contrary (Lee, 1982).

Lee (1982) reports that fear is as high in rural areas as in urban areas. This fear may be attributed to an increase in rural crime. Several factors may cause this fear. First, the social and community structure, which once served to mediate a citizen's behavior, is changing. Children's misconduct and often illegal pranks reflect a lack of respect for private property. Second, small housing developments are spread over a larger area making police patrol difficult. Third, there has been an increase in the number of part-time farmers who seek work elsewhere during

the day. Fourth, nearby interstates and highways aid in the escape of law-breakers before the crime is discovered or the police arrive. Fifth, second houses/camps are often burglarized and the theft remains unknown for months. Finally, lax home security measures, reduced police allocations, or no local or state police protection, and the notion held by rural residents that crime is a city problem, contribute to the victimization rate and ultimately the level of fear being experienced by rural residents (Pennsylvania State University, 1980; Swanson, 1981).

Swanson (1981) further proposes that: 1) rural agricultural crime involves significant losses. For example, the loss of one piece of farm machinery could cost \$100,000; 2) there is a significant amount of reported crime in the rural and agricultural environment. Rural areas have shown an increase in most crime categories while urban areas have shown less increase or a decrease in some crime categories; and 3) organized criminals and organized crime are involved in planning and executing rural and agricultural crimes. Boggs (1971) argues that, although urban dwellers have higher levels of fear, rural residents believe their risk of victimization is higher than do city residents.

The rationale used to explain the fear level among urban dwellers emphasizes somewhat different characteristics. Compared with rural areas, cities are characterized by a lessening of trust, a breakdown of

community support and a greater number of strangers. Simmel (1950) suggested that the move to cities brought about a loss of normative adjustment. Gans (1970:72), however, points out that the rise of subcultures helped to provide the individual urban dweller with a means of coping with the direct effects of an urban environment by reducing stress and providing social and emotional support. Some research has suggested that fear of crime is most often the fear of the stranger (Merry, 1980; Lewis and Maxfield, 1980), and since there are more strangers in large cities, Fischer (1981) suggests that city size and fear of crime may be positively related. Kort (1980:3) points out that there are no studies comparing social behavior toward strangers in an urban environment to that of persons in urban and non-urban areas.

Kennedy and Krahn (1984) sought to study this weakness by examining an individual's place of origin and holding community size constant. They found an extremely weak correlation between fear of crime and size of place of origin. In other words, there is little evidence of the notion of "rural baggage"; that is, that city residents of rural origin do not report less fear. In fact, they found that people from smaller communities are less likely to feel safe in the larger city in which they now live. Further, they found that duration, less than two years residence, and being male with urban backgrounds contribute to the higher

level of fear that is reported.

Community size has been found to be directly related to the crime rate (e.g. Wolfgang, 1967; cf. Erskine, 1974). Residents of large cities report being more fearful of victimization than people in smaller towns and rural areas. In a national victimization study, Ennis (1967:29) concluded: "... it is clear that as one moves from the central city to the suburbs out into smaller towns and rural areas, the crime rates decline, but much more drastically for crimes against the person than for property crimes...".

Bankston et al. (1985), in a victimization survey in Louisiana, found that community size was an important determinant of the fear of crime. Additionally, sex and victim experience were weakly associated in a positive direction with fear of crime.

Similar parallels of actual crime rates in relation to community size were also noted by Boggs (1971), who found that residents in large cities in Missouri experienced significantly greater levels of fear than residents in suburban or rural areas. Similarly, Conklin (1971) found suburban residents reported being less afraid of crime than urban residents and Clemente and Kleiman (1977) reported that large city residents reported experiencing higher levels of fear than rural communities. In fact they reported a clear decreasing "step pattern" when moving from large cities to rural areas. In communities of all sizes,

the aged were more clearly fearful. Further, they examined the effect of income and found that, regardless of income, people in large cities, especially the elderly, expressed more fear. They conclude by suggesting that "[c]ity size, while not as influential as sex, also has explanatory power" (527).

In contrast, Braungart et al. (1980) indicate that residents of large urban areas were not (emphasis mine) more fearful than those living in smaller communities and rural areas. When controlling for sex and age, they found that women at each age level from smaller communities were more likely to report a higher fear of crime than women from large cities. They do, however, report that elderly women, in large cities or smaller communities, were the most fearful groups. For males in large urban areas, more reported feeling fearful but less frequently than women.

While research results are mixed with regard to community size and fear of crime, it is clear that people in urban areas do express a greater level of fear of crime than other sized communities, with the possible exception of rural community residents who may be experiencing a greater level of fear as a result of an increased victimization rate. Therefore, it is expected that community size will be associated with a higher level of fear.

Education:

In the research conducted by Riger et al. (1978) respondents were asked if they feared for the safety of others who lived in their homes. The significant differences in fear were associated with demographics other than sex, age, race, or marital status. A higher level of fear was associated with lower levels of education. Further, not working or attending school was also associated with a higher level of fear.

Clemente and Kleiman (1976) indicate that education produces differences among those who are less than 65, while only showing minimal differences among the aged. Generally, regardless of educational level, about 50 percent of the elderly respondents indicated that they were fearful of walking alone at night within one mile of their home. For those less than 65 years old, 37 percent with more than a high school education, 44 percent of high school graduates, and 43 percent of those with less than a high school education, expressed fear.

Little research has examined the role of education and the fear of crime. Generally, the results that are available suggest that the level of fear of crime is related to education. However, this relationship may be mitigated by age. It is also important to note that the level of education is related to the individual's socio-economic status and thus may be better viewed through the location of

residence, income and race. Therefore, it is expected that education will not be related to the level of fear.

Marital Status:

Generally, research indicates that people who live alone are more afraid than those living with other people (Clemente and Kleiman, 1976, 1977; Erskine, 1974; Lebowitz, 1975; Garofalo, 1977; Mullins, 1978; Sundeen and Mathieu, 1976). Much research does not specifically inquire as to the number of members in a household; therefore, marital status has come to be the measure used to determine if one lives alone.

Braungart et al. (1980) found that marital status was an important factor when analyzed. Specifically, elderly men and women who had never married were the most fearful groups. Additionally, elderly divorced or separated women and widowed women were more likely to be fearful than those women who had spouses. Males, except the elderly, unmarried males, reported low levels of fear regardless of marital status. Thus, marital status proved to be a more important characteristic for women than men.

Similar findings were reported by Patterson (1977). He indicated that elderly women have a greater fear of being robbed or assaulted than do men. However, he noted that women who lived with others were only slightly more fearful than men. Moreover, it was the women who lived alone who were more highly fearful.

Thus, it is the people who are widowed, single, or separated who are more likely to report a higher level of fear of crime than married people. However, women, in all marital status categories, and especially single women, report a higher level of fear of crime. Because the effect of marital status on the fear of crime may be mitigated by sex, it is not expected to be related to higher level of fear in this study.

Victimization Experience:

Initially the early victimization research found that fear, concern, and perceived risk of crime did not necessarily have any firm association with victimization experience (Ennis, 1967; Biderman et al., 1967; Boggs, 1971; Conklin, 1971; Hindelang, 1974). There were some exceptions. For example, Kleiman and David (1973) found that black victims perceived higher crime rates in the Bedford-Styvesant area than non-victims. Additionally, the Texas Crime Trend Survey (St. Louis, 1976) reported that victims perceived a higher risk of victimization than non-victims, and Feyerheren and Hindelang (1974) found that previously victimized juveniles were more likely to report fear of walking in the neighborhood alone at night.

When analyzing victimization reports, the predominant crimes examined are property crimes. Since these crimes do not involve contact between the offender and victim, it would be expected that there would be less effect than for

violent crimes.

Toseland (1982), in a recent study, reports that the percentage of persons who are fearful of crime is much greater than the persons who were victims of muggings and burglaries. However, in 1977, Garofalo compared the crime perceptions of victims of personal crimes with non-victims, controlling for sex. He found that victimization experience did not have a major effect on the fear of crime. But, when personal crimes (victim contact) were examined separately, he found that they were more likely to report being afraid to walk alone in the neighborhood and perceived an increased risk of victimization than other respondents.

Additionally, Skogan (1977) has reported that victimization by rape, robbery, personal theft (purse snatching) and burglary were systematically related to the fear of crime. Auto theft, simple larceny, and assault were not related. Braungart et al. (1980) found that the personal effects of being burglarized were more severe among women than men and the most fearful victims were elderly women. Elderly men did have strong responses to being burglarized, while young and middle aged males being recently burglarized did not appear to effect their fear of crime. Stinchcomb et al. (1977) found effects on fear for both robbery and victim crimes. Finally, Block and Long (1973) report similar, but not significant, findings for robbery victims.

In examining victim/non-victim differences, Garofalo (1977) cautions that while differences may be significant, they are often less than 10 percentage points different and thus, generalizations regarding the higher level of fear reported by robbery victims are inappropriate.

To date research suggests that some specific crimes have a modest effect on perception but no wide scale effects are found. Therefore, it is expected that previous victimization experience will be related to a higher level of fear.

V. SUMMARY

This study seeks to explain three issues. First, little research is available to indicate which specific crimes contribute to higher levels of fear. Global measures traditionally used appear to treat all offenses equally or assume that violent crimes are the focus of people's fear. Therefore, the first research issue is to establish categories of fear-evoking offenses, or more specifically, to determine the kinds of crime people fear. Secondly, most research to date indicates that women have a greater level of fear of crime than men. Additionally research suggests that age, race, income, education and marital status may explain the relationship between the level of fear experienced by an individual. Therefore, the second research issue seeks to understand gender differences; that is, do men and women fear alike when the crime of rape is

excluded from the analysis? Further, the relationship of the social and demographic variables with respect to the categories of fear will be established. Finally, rape is an offense primarily associated with women. Therefore, it is in this regard that the fear of crime reported by women will be compared with that reported by men. The third research issue, then, is to specify the influence of rape on the level of fear reported by women.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The discussion of the methodological procedures followed in this study are divided into three sections: the sample, the operationalization of concepts, and the statistical analysis of the data.

I. SAMPLE

During the summer of 1984, the Department of Rural Sociology, as part of the S-193 Southern Regional Crime Project, conducted a victimization study of households in the State of Louisiana. A basic questionnaire was designed by members of the Regional Technical Committee to obtain information regarding household victimization, attitudes toward and perceptions of crime, preventative measures, and a variety of socio-demographic characteristics (see Appendix B).

The sample was obtained from the Louisiana Department of Public Safety (LDPS) and drawn from the population of licensed drivers in Louisiana. Drivers' licenses were selected as a sampling frame because a statewide sample was needed, and it was determined this source would provide the most representative sample of the State population obtainable, given the projects resources. License numbers in Louisiana are randomly assigned. A desired sample of

4,501 cases was systematically drawn by selecting every 1883rd case. Previous experiences in similar victimization studies in Mississippi (Freese et al., 1984) and in Florida (Carter and Beaulieu, 1984) indicated that approximately 25 percent of the sample drawn would result in non-responses due to unknown or unforwardable addresses and the death of some of the selected participants. This made a relatively large sample necessary. Of those selected, 163 had no in-state address or were identified as deceased, leaving a remaining sample of 4,338; this was the number of questionnaires initially mailed.

Subjects received an initial questionnaire and explanatory cover letter in June, 1984. Individuals not responding to the first mailing received a second, replacement questionnaire and explanatory cover letter in July, 1984. Finally, for those who still had not replied, a third explanatory letter and replacement questionnaire were mailed in August, 1984.

Of the remaining sample of 4,338, 626 were returned undelivered. A total of 1850 questionnaires were returned completed, representing 49.8 percent of those assumed to have been delivered. The representativeness of the responses, the age, race and sex distributions of the respondents, were compared with the original sample of 4501. The original cases selected were composed of 77 percent white, 22 percent black, and 1 percent other races; 74 percent were under 55 years of age; and 53 percent were

males. The respondents were 77 percent white, 22 percent black and 1 percent other races; 69 percent were under 55 years of age; and 40 percent males. The returns appear to be representative of race and age, but there was some bias in the response rate in favor of females.

II. THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Since this study was part of a larger research project, only that part of the questionnaire which is applicable to this work will be discussed. The questionnaire was pretested by approximately thirty people for clarity and length of time to complete. Subsequently, changes were made and resulted in the questionnaire found in Appendix A.

III. OPERATIONALIZATION OF CONCEPTS

Fear of Crime

The respondents' perceived fear of victimization of 16 specific offenses was measured using the following item:

"We are interested in how afraid you are about becoming the¹ victim of each type of crime during the next 12 months. Please circle the response which best describes your fear

¹ Fischer (1978) points out that there is a distinction between actual fear and anticipated fear. Actual fear is triggered by an environmental cue and it is unlikely that the respondent is experiencing actual fear while completing the survey. Anticipated fear may or may not be based on having

about the crime". Response categories were: not afraid, somewhat afraid, and very afraid (scored 0, 1, 2, respectively) for the following offenses:

having someone break into your home while you're away.

being raped.

being hit by a drunken driver.

having someone break into your home while you're home.

having something taken from you by force.

having strangers loiter near you home late at night.

being threatened with a knife, club, or gun.

having a group of juveniles disturb the peace near your home.

being beaten up by a stranger.

being murdered.

having your car stolen.

being cheated or conned out of your money.

receiving an obscene phone call.

being sold contaminated food.

being beaten up by someone you know.

1. con't.

experienced actual fear in the past and if such a situation is encountered in the future, actual fear may or may not occur. It is the projection of the individual to determine the type of situation which may evoke fear and the strength of the reaction in the projected situations and situations in the past.

Social and Demographic Variables

The social and demographic characteristics of sex, age, race, community size, education, and income were obtained from the survey questionnaire (see Appendix C). These were operationalized as follows:

Sex: Male = 0
Female = 1

Race: White = 0
Black = 1

Age: A continuum of one year intervals

Education of respondent: This reflects the highest level of education completed from:
never went to school = 0
some grade school (Grades 1-8) = 1
some high school (Grades 9-12) = 2
completed high school or equivalent = 3
some college or vocational school beyond high school = 4
completed a vocational training program = 5
completed a two-year college degree = 6
completed a four-year college degree = 7
completed a graduate or professional degree = 8

Income: The total household income for the previous 12 months on a continuum with \$5,000 intervals ranging from less than \$5,000 = 0 to \$100,000 or more = 11.

Community Size: The perceived community size on a six point continuum where:
rural = 1
a town less than 2,500 people = 2
a town of 2,500 to 9,999 = 3
a small city of 10,000 to 24,999 people = 4
a city of 25,000 to 49,999 people = 5
a large city of 50,000 people or more = 6

Marital status of respondent:
never married = 1
married = 2
separated or divorced = 3
widowed = 4

Victimization Experience²:**none = 0****yes = 1****IV. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE DATA**

The analysis of the data utilizes the statistical techniques of factor analysis, multiple regression and multiple classification analysis. In this work, three research issues are examined. The first is to identify categories of fear-evoking offenses, excluding rape, for men and women. The second issue explores the explanatory value of the social and demographic characteristics of age, race, income, education, marital status and community size with respect to one dimension of fear. Finally, this work examines the offense of rape to determine its effect, if any, in contributing to the differences in the level of fear experienced by women from men. All of the analysis is completed using the Statistical Packet for the Social Sciences (SPSSX) computer program.

² Victimization experience is a combined variable of a respondent reporting burglary while at home or away from home, car theft, vandalism, theft while away from home and a host of violent crimes, including murder, rape, assault etc. during the last 12 months. Dubow et al. (1979) suggest two methodological problems: 1) victim experience over a brief period (6-12 months) increases the likelihood of remembering details of the specific information, earlier, more serious victimizations may effect current perceptions; and 2) the use of cross sectional data to make longitudinal inferences cannot clearly measure changes in perception as a result of victimization. However, for this work any victimization reported is utilized as yes and if none reported then no.

Establish Categories of Fear-Evoking Offenses

Factor analysis is the statistical method selected to identify which of fifteen specific offenses, excluding rape, reflect higher levels of fear. Additionally, the factor analysis is used to identify those offenses which are highly correlated, and which, in a combined form, will constitute the dependent variable, "fear of crime."

There is a wide variety of uses for factor analytic techniques. The most common applications generally include 1) exploratory uses, 2) confirmatory uses, and 3) use as a measuring device (Kim, 1975:469). In this study, factor analysis was selected as a method of statistical analysis because it has the ability to identify the underlying relationships among numerous correlated variables in terms of a few factor variates (Overall and Klett, 1972:89). This data-reduction capability is the single most distinctive characteristic of factor analysis and results are based on the correlation coefficients of a set of variables. The data may be "reduced" to a smaller set of factors which account for the inter-relations in the data (Kim, 1975: 469).

According to Comrey (1973:190), the first step in planning a factor analysis is to define the domain to be studied and then develop a hypothesized factor structure. This factor model will state explicitly the nature of the expected factors; that is, which variables should have high factor loadings on that factor. In this manner, factor

analysis can be used to test hypotheses about the structuring of variables in terms of the expected number of factors or factor loadings (Kim, 1975:469). The variables should, by theory or hypothesis, correlate with dimensions postulated in advance and the factor analysis identifies the dimensions present in the data (Rummel, 1970:30). It is in this manner that factor analysis will be applied in this study.

Further, one factor was "saved" and constitutes the new criterion variable called "crimes of fear" which is used as a dependent variable in further analysis.

The explanatory value of social and demographic variables with respect to "Crimes of Fear"

Multiple regression is the statistical procedure selected to examine this research issue. Multiple regression is a general technique by which the relationship between a dependent or criterion variable and a set of independent or predictor variables can be analyzed. The most important uses are: 1) to find the best linear prediction equation and evaluate its prediction accuracy; 2) to control for confounding variables in order to evaluate a specific variable or set of variables; and 3) to find structural relationships (Kim and Kohout, 1975:321).

In this study the new "crimes of fear" variable serves as the dependent variable in a regression equation. The independent variables in this equation are sex, age, race, education, income, marital status, community size, and previous victimization experience. The beta weights will

determine the strength of the relationship to fear of crime. Independent variables without a .05 level of significance to the dependent variable are eliminated from further analysis.

The Influence of Rape on the Level of Fear

The effect of the fear of rape on the level of fear is measured by a multiple regression analysis, and multiple classification analysis. The regression equation has the criterion variable, crimes of fear, and the independent variables derived from the previous regression equations, including the variable fear of rape. The results indicated the strength of the model in predicting those factors influencing the level of fear. Additionally, those social and demographic variables with beta weights significant at the .05 level or better are used in the multiple classification analysis.

Multiple classification analysis (MCA) is a statistical technique which allows for a pattern of changes to be examined on one variable as more variables are introduced as controls. Basically, an MCA is a method of displaying the results of an analysis of variance when there are no significant interaction effects (Kim and Kohout, 1975: 409). Therefore, this statistical method was selected as an additional method to view the effect rape contributes to the level of fear of crime reported by women.

This stage of the analysis has two components. First, the composite measure of fear (now known as the "crimes of fear"), excluding rape, is the criterion variable with sex

as a factor variable. The independent variables, identified in the previous multiple regression procedure, are introduced as covariates. The mean levels of fear for men and women are then derived. If the mean level of fear increases for women, the fear of rape, then, is an offense which contributes to the increased fear of crime expressed by women.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS

I. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results and a discussion of each of the three research issues. The first issue seeks to establish categories of fear evoking offenses, excluding rape, for men and women. The second issue concerns the explanatory value of selected social and demographic characteristics. The third issue seeks to identify the effect of rape in contributing to the differences between women and men in the level of fear experienced.

The data used in this study were drawn from drivers' license holders in the state of Louisiana. A questionnaire that included items on victimization, fear of crime, and a variety of social and demographic characteristics was mailed to 4,338 people. A total of 1850 usable questionnaires were returned, representing 49.8% of those assumed delivered. The original sample was composed of 77 percent whites, 22 percent blacks, and 1 percent other races; 74 percent were under 55 years of age and 26 percent were 55 years of age and over; and 53 percent were males and 47 percent females. The returned questionnaires were composed of 77 percent white, 22 percent black, and 40 percent males and 60 percent females. Other races were excluded from this analysis

because of their small number and dichotomization of the race variable. Additionally, 69 percent were under 55 years of age and 31 percent were 55 years of age and older. The returned cases are representative of the race and age characteristics. Although females are over-represented, the analysis generally examines males and females separately and, therefore, weighting the responses is not necessary.

II. CATEGORIES OF FEAR-EVOKING OFFENSES

Fear of crime, as noted previously, is measured using fifteen offenses (Appendix B). The responses to these offenses were then factor analyzed by sex to determine which crimes men and women fear.

In order to include all possible cases in the analysis, missing data for each offense are omitted from the computation if the value of either of the variables being considered is missing. This is called pairwise deletion (SPSS, 1975:504). The factor analysis was carried out using the subprogram FACTOR of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSSX). The method of factoring used was principal components without iteration (PA1) and the varimax method or orthogonal rotation was chosen for rotating the factors. There was no limit placed upon the number of factors extracted.

The factoring procedures yielded the varimax rotated matrix for males shown in Table 1¹. Two factors resulted. However, the only similarity between the results and the expected finding was that there would be two factors, that

is the factors were expected to merge into one factor composed of property crimes and another factor consisting of personal/violent crimes. The variables loading high on Factor 1 include property variables, such as fear of car theft, fear of being conned out of money, as well as personal/ violent crimes, including fear of loitering, fear of juvenile loitering, fear of being approached by beggars, fear of obscene telephone calls, fear of being sold contaminated food, fear of threat with a deadly weapon, fear of being beaten by a stranger and fear of being beaten by someone you know. These offenses are generally associated with offenses of public disorder. Factor 2 contains, for the most part, offenses representing personal/violent crimes including fear of murder, fear of being hit by a drunk driver and fear of robbery. Fear of breaking and entering while away from home and while at home are the property offenses loading high on Factor 2. These offenses, with the exception of fear of being hit by a drunk driver, are offenses identified in the Uniform Crime Reports and have had data collected and reported on for more than two decades.

- 1 The other statistics resulting from the factor analysis are included in Appendix C.

Table 1. Varimax rotated factor matrix (orthogonal) of 15 specific offenses for males.

OFFENSES	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2
Having someone break into your home while your away.....		.57883
Being hit by a drunken driver while driving your car.....		.63535
Having someone break into your home while you're home.....		.83543
Having something taken from you by force.....		.84310
Being murdered.....		.82416
Having strangers loiter near your home late at night.....	.83736	
Being threatened with a knife, club, or gun.....	.72087	
Having a group of juveniles disturb the peace near your home.....	.86548	
Being beaten up by a stranger.....	.74049	
Having your car stolen.....	.78969	
Being cheated or conned out of your money.....	.85511	
Being approached by people begging for money.....	.90321	
Receiving an obscene telephone call..	.88920	
Being sold contaminated food.....	.82257	
Being beaten up by someone you know...	.84915	

Table 2² reflects the factors yielded in a varimax rotation of fear of 15 offenses for females. The results are identical to that of males. Two factors resulted. Factor 1 consists of 10 offenses including the following variables of: fear of having strangers loiter near your home late at night, fear of being threatened with a weapon, fear of having juveniles disturb the peace near their home, fear of being beaten by a stranger, fear of having a car stolen, fear of being conned out of money, fear of being approached by people begging for money, fear of receiving obscene telephone calls, fear of being sold contaminated food, and fear of being beaten by someone you know. Factor 2 is identical in that it consists of the same variables found in the factor analysis of males' fear of crimes. These include the fear of having someone break into the home while away and while at home, fear of being hit by a drunk driver, fear of being robbed and fear of being murdered.

Since the factoring procedure yielded similar results for men and women, a factor analysis of the 15 offenses was carried out for the total sample. The results of this factor analysis are found in Table 3³. As expected, the two factors were identical to those obtained from the separate analysis by sex in Tables 1 and 2.

² The other statistics resulting from the factor analysis are included in Appendix D.

³ The other statistics resulting from the factor analysis are included in Appendix E.

Table 2. Varimax rotated factor (orthogonal) matrix of 15 specific offenses for females.

OFFENSES	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2
Having someone break into your home while your away.....		.52463
Being hit by a drunken driver while driving your car.....		.70368
Having someone break into your home while you're home.....		.86560
Having something taken from you by force.....		.84619
Being murdered.....		.85241
Having strangers loiter near your home late at night.....	.86161	
Being threatened with a knife, club, or gun.....	.69800	
Having a group of juveniles disturb the peace near your home.....	.87423	
Being beaten up by a stranger.....	.69096	
Having your car stolen.....	.72980	
Being cheated or conned out of your money.....	.85548	
Being approached by people begging for money.....	.87957	
Receiving an obscene telephone call..	.85557	
Being sold contaminated food.....	.84101	
Being beaten up by someone you know...	.83385	

Table 3. Varimax rotated factor matrix (orthogonal) of 15 specific offenses, for the total sample.

OFFENSES	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2
Having someone break into your home while your away.....		.56985
Being hit by a drunken driver while driving your car.....		.68815
Having someone break into your home while you're home.....		.86031
Having something taken from you by force.....		.84991
Being murdered.....		.83676
Having strangers loiter near your home late at night.....	.86060	
Being threatened with a knife, club, or gun.....	.72398	
Having a group of juveniles disturb the peace near your home.....	.88154	
Being beaten up by a stranger.....	.73112	
Having your car stolen.....	.76803	
Being cheated or conned out of your money.....	.86324	
Being approached by people begging for money.....	.90113	
Receiving an obscene telephone call..	.87468	
Being sold contaminated food.....	.84880	
Being beaten up by someone you know...	.85170	

Based on previous research, it was expected that a factor of fear consisting of personal/violent crimes and one of property crimes would emerge. However, this analysis suggests that the factoring of fear-evoking offenses has formulated two factors not purely composed of property and personal/violent crimes. Instead, the results indicate that property crimes and personal crimes are components of both factors. For example, Factor 1 is composed of car theft, as well as threat with a weapon, while Factor 2 contains murder, a personal/violent crime, and burglary, a property crime. Additionally, fear of burglary while at home and while away from home are generally considered property offenses, the literature suggests that the notion of potential violence or personal harm is situationally linked and thus may produce fear similar to that of fear of violent crimes.

In order to examine the differences between the factor 1 and factor 2 offenses, the percentage differences in the responses of men and women for each offense is shown in Table 4. The table indicates that women generally have a higher level of fear than men. Moreover, those offenses identified in Factor 2 represent those offenses having higher percentages of fear, while the Factor 1 offenses generally have a higher percentage of not afraid responses.

Therefore, one conclusion that can be drawn from this analysis is that Factor 1, on the one hand, represents what might be called generalized fear of victimization, that is

Table 4. Percentage level of fear for 16 offenses by sex.

OFFENSES	MALES (N=792)			FEMALES (N=1033)		
	% Not Afraid	% Some Afraid	% Very Afraid	% Not Afraid	% Some Afraid	% Very Afraid
Having someone break into your home while your away.....	28	53	18	17	54	27*
Being hit by a drunken driver while driving your car.....	14	47	38	8	34	57*
Having someone break into your home while you're home.....	39	35	24	20	30	48*
Having something taken from you by force.....	41	37	21	23	39	36*
Being murdered.....	44	20	34	26	19	53*
Fear of rape.....	59	16	22	18	28	53*
Having strangers loiter near your home late at night...	48	40	11	31	49	19
Being threatened with a knife, club, or gun.	33	34	31	21	28	49
Having a group of juveniles disturb the peace near your home.....	56	34	9	41	44	13
Being beaten up by a stranger.....	47	31	20	28	29	41
Having your car stolen.	39	41	17	28	42	28
Being cheated or conned out of your money.....	59	30	10	45	38	15

Table 4. Continued.

OFFENSES	MALES			FEMALES		
	% Not Afraid	% Some Afraid	% Very Afraid	% Not Afraid	% Some Afraid	% Very Afraid
Being approached by people begging for money.....	66	26	6	52	36	9
Receiving an obscene telephone call.....	63	27	9	36	44	17
Being sold contaminated food.....	54	30	15	44	35	18
Being beaten up by someone you know.....	70	19	9	55	22	21

in most cases avoidable, and characterized by low fear or no fear. the offenses are of general concern to the population and, For example the fear of being approached by people begging may be avoided by walking in a different area or changing the time one passes a given location.

On the other hand, Factor 2 represents a category of fear of possible unavoidable personal harm. This includes such offenses as fear of robbery, fear of murder, fear of being hit by a drunk driver, fear of burglary while away from home, and the fear of burglary while at home. This group of offenses generally indicates an individual's lack of control over others and the environment thus producing a different category of fear-evoking offenses characterized by high fear. Another perspective examines the Factor 2 variable in light of socially constructed fear. Four of the five offenses composing Factor 2 are index crimes. Since the 1950's, official statistics have been maintained on the crimes of murder, burglary and robbery. Further these crimes are also high visibility crimes. For example, newspapers and broadcast media frequently report area murders and robberies to the exclusion of other forms of criminal victimization. Drunk driving now joins this list of high visibility crimes. Currently, there is a media campaign and concurrently the development of groups, such as MADD (Mother's Against Drunk Driving) to increase awareness of the problems of drinking, driving, and the potential deaths that might result. These offenses apparently elicit

a higher level of fear, but the underlying unifying dimension may not be the nature of the act per se. Rather, it is a socially constructed fear based on the selectivity and focus of social control efforts and mass media concentration. This study will approach the interpretation of the Factor 2 variable with the consequences of the social construction of reality in mind, as well as the notion of unavoidable, personal harm.

In order to utilize the factor containing the offenses of fear of unavoidable personal harm derived from the initial analysis, those variables not loading high on this factor were eliminated at this stage. The variables remaining were again factored in order to determine 1) if an additional factor might emerge; and 2) to produce "pure" loadings for use as the dependent variable in the remaining analysis.

The results of this factoring procedure are found in Appendix F. The variables yielded only one factor with high loadings. This factor was saved and serves as the criterion variable, "crimes of fear", in further analyses.

III. EXPLANATORY VALUE OF SOCIAL AND DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

The next step in the analysis is to examine the social and demographic variables which explain crimes of fear for men and women. Multiple regression is used. The independent variables used include age, race, education, income, marital status, and previous victimization experience. Missing data was deleted if the value of either of the two variables considered was missing (pairwise deletion). For males, Table 5 indicates that the independent variables explain only 2.4% ($R^2=.024$) of the variation. The beta coefficients indicate that only age is inversely related to the dependent variable at the .01 level of significance (beta = -.107), or that as age increases the level of fear decreases.

For women, the picture is somewhat different. Using the same independent and criterion variables, Table 6 indicates that 4.2% ($R^2 = .042$) of the variation was explained by the model. The results indicate that as age and education increase the level of fear decreases. Further as community size increases the level of fear increases, and those who have been previously victimized report a higher level of fear. For age the beta is -.142, and for community size the beta is .101. These betas are significant at the .01 level. The beta for income is -.088, for education the beta is -.085 and for previous victimization experience the beta is .069. These betas are significant at the .05 level.

The regression analysis indicates that for men and women, age increases the level of fear expressed by the

Table 5. Standardized Beta Coefficient and Coefficient of determination (R^2) for race, marital status, education, community size, income, age, and victimization experience for males; crimes of fear, dependent.

Variable	Standardized Beta	Significance of T
Victimization Experience	.045871	.2501
Marital Status	.049811	.2379
Education	-.060688	.1839
Race	.045446	.2678
Community Size	.058087	.1564
Age	-.117800	.0065**
Income	.031125	.5152

$R^2 = .02351$

** .01 level of significance

Table 6. Standardized Beta Coefficient and Coefficient of determination (R^2) for race, marital status, education, community size, income, age, and previous victimization experience for females; crimes of fear, dependent.

Variable	Standardized Beta	Significance of T
Victimization Experience	.068509	.0482*
Marital Status	.054056	.1868
Education	-.084519	.0264**
Race	-.018439	.6054
Community Size	.101131	.0046**
Age	-.142448	.0005**
Income	-.087738	.0270*

$R^2 = .04303$

* .05 level of significance

** .01 level of significance

respondents decreases. Additionally, for women, income and education have an inverse relationship to the level of fear; while community size and previous victimization experience have a direct relationship to the level of fear. The relationship between income and the crimes of fear for women is consistent with previous research that has found lower income people are, in proximity, closer to criminal acts and thus have more fear. Women, may feel that their risk of victimization may be higher and in combination with their physical vulnerability, increases their level of fear. Related to this is the direct relationship of previous victimization to the level of fear for women. Women who have been previously victimized may also feel more vulnerable as they feel their risk of additional victimization increases and the likelihood of potential physical harm (rape, murder) also increases. Education is particularly interesting in that this finding demonstrates that, at least for women, the association with lower fear is not simply a result of colinearity with other socio-economic variables. Education may produce a change in the world view. The specific nature of this possible causal path cannot be determined from this study, however, education may have an effect on how crimes are perceived. Perhaps higher education allows a more objective evaluation of how crime occurs and ultimately reduces unreasonable fear.

These results indicate that fear is more pervasive

among females. The variables of income, community size, education and previous victimization experience are consistent with previous research. It was expected that these variables would be related to the crimes of fear for both sexes. However, these were found to be related for women only and not for men. Additionally, age was expected to be related to the dependent variable for both sexes and a direct relationship was found.

IV. THE EFFECT OF RAPE ON THE LEVEL OF FEAR

In order to examine the effect of the fear of rape on the differences in the level of fear of men from women, two statistical procedures were utilized. First, a regression analysis, controlling for sex, using the dependent variable, crimes of fear, and the independent variables of community size, previous victimization experience, income and education, and the fear of rape. The contribution of the fear of rape to the level of fear experienced by women is shown in Tables 7. The significance of T and the standardized beta identified the covariates were used in the multiple classification analysis. Second, the effect of the fear of rape is examined still further in a multiple classification analysis found in Table 8.

In Table 7 the effect of fear of rape may be seen for females. The results are similar to Table 6 in that there is a direct relationship between age and previous victimization experience to the dependent variable, and an inverse relationship between income to the dependent

Table 7. Standardized Beta Coefficient and Coefficient of Determination (R^2) for age, income, victimization experience, community size, and fear of rape for females.

Variables	Standardized Beta	Significance of T
Fear of Rape	.779475	.0000**
Income	-.047499	.0464*
Age	.051902	.0209*
Victimization Experience	.071728	.0011**
Community Size	-.008475	.7100
Education	-.008690	.7210

$R^2 = .60886$

* .05 level of significance

** .01 level of significance

variable. The crimes of fear increases the fear of rape also increases. Community size and education, however, are no longer significantly related to the dependent variable. For women, the fear of rape ($\beta = .779$) and previous victimization experience ($\beta = .072$) are significant at the .01 level, and income ($\beta = -.047$) are significant at the .05 level. The amount of variance explained is 61 percent ($R^2 = .609$).

To examine further the effect of the fear of rape on the level of fear reported for men and women, a multiple classification analysis was used controlling for sex and using the additional covariates of age previous victimization experience and income. The results are shown in Table 8.

In Table 8, column 1 indicates the unadjusted deviation of the mean level of fear (involving crimes of unavoidable personal harm) between males and females from a mean equaling zero. Additionally, there are three columns reflecting values adjusted for independents and covariates. Column 2 reflects the effects of sex controlling for age, income and victim experience, while in column 3 effects of sex while controlling for age, income, victim experience and fear of rape are introduced, and in column 4 the effect sex and controlling only for the fear of rape is shown. The range of the responses is based on a three point scale. Therefore, even a small amount of movement on the scale might reflect an important shift in attitude.

Table 8. Unadjusted and adjusted deviation of crimes of fear by sex with covarites of age, income, victimization experience, and fear of rape from the grand mean.*

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Sex	Unadjusted Deviation	Adjusted for Independents & Covariates of Age, Income, & Vict. Exp.	Adjusted for Independents & Covariates of Age, Income, Vict. Exp., & Fear of Rape	Adjusted for Independents & Covariates of Fear of Rape
Male	-0.29	-0.28	0.07	0.07
Female	0.23	0.22	-0.05	-0.05
Eta or Beta**	.26	.25	.06	.06
R ²		.092	.537	.539

*Grand Mean = 0.

**Eta refers to the zero order relationship, while Beta refers to the effect of sex on the crimes of fear with variables in the appropriate column controlled.

***significant at the .01 level.

Table 8 indicates that the unadjusted mean level of fear experience by males and females is significantly different, ranging from -0.29 (.29 points below the mean) for men to +0.23 (.23 points above the mean) for women. This finding indicates that men in this sample report a lower level of fear than women which is an expected result. The eta is .26.

Initially, the effects of age, income and previous victimization experience were introduced as covariates. Table 8, column 2 indicates that there is little change within the categories and no difference in the range between the categories. The partial (beta) correlation is .25 and the amount of variance explained by this model is 9 percent ($R^2 = .092$). While age, income, and previous victimization experience have a significant relationship to the dependent variable, they do not serve to explain the differences in the level of fear experienced by women from men.

However, when the fear of rape is added as a covariate, column 3, the mean level of fear for males, changes from -.28 points below the mean to .07 points above the mean. The results for women show movement from .22 points above the mean to -.05 points below the mean. For both men and women there is a change in direction in relationship to the mean indicating that when rape is controlled, women experience an equivalent level of fear with men. Stated differently, the differences in the level of fear experienced by women from men may be attributed to the fear of rape. The amount of

variance explained by controlling for these variables is 54 percent ($R^2 = .537$) and the partial beta is .06.

The effects of the fear of rape on the level of fear experienced by women from men is more clearly shown when the fear of rape is examined separately in column 4. The mean level of fear for males is +0.07, while for females it is -0.05. The fear of rape accounts for the changes in the mean level of fear and explains 54 percent of the variance ($R^2 = .539$) and the beta is +.06. Further, the results also indicate that when the fear of rape is controlled, there is no difference in the level of fear between men and women. Thus, the expectation that the fear of rape contributes to the differences in the level of fear experienced between males and females is supported.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION OF THE LIMITATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

INTRODUCTION

This final chapter is divided into three sections: first, a summary of the findings presented in Chapter 4, second a discussion of the limitations of the research; and third, the implications for further research.

I. SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

The results of the factor analysis indicate that there are two underlying dimensions of fear. Both factors contain personal/violent offenses, as well as property offenses. However, one factor contains offenses that are considered to reflect generalized fear, while the second factor was composed of offenses that perhaps individuals' feel they have little or no control over, and generally can be associated with possible unavoidable personal harm. This second factor was subsequently labelled crimes of fear and used as the criterion variable in further analyses.

The regression analysis identified the relationship of selected social and demographic characteristics to the dependent variable, crimes of fear. Only age was significantly related to the dependent variable for both men and women. Additionally, for women, income, community size, education and previous victimization experiences were

significantly related. While the model does not consistently predict which groups of people will express higher levels of fear, it does indicate that women, generally, experience a higher level of fear than men and that fear is more pervasive. The independent variables found to be significantly related to "crimes of fear" for women were used in further analysis examining the effect of the fear of rape in contributing to the differences in the level of fear between men and women.

When the fear of rape was introduced into a regression controlling only for females, community size and educational level were no longer related to the dependent variable. The independent variables of fear of rape, age, income, and previous victimization experience remained significantly related to the dependent variable, crimes of fear for females. These variables were used as covariates in a multiple classification analysis controlling for sex, to examine the effect on the level of fear. The covariates, excluding the fear of rape variable, did not contribute to describing the differences in the level of fear between men and women. However, when the fear of rape was controlled, the level of fear for women decreased below that of men. Thus, indicating that the fear of rape contributes to the differences in the level of fear experienced by women from men.

II. DISCUSSION OF THE LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

This study has several limitations that need to be addressed. These limitations deal primarily with the construction of the questionnaire.

First, the questionnaire was twenty-four pages long. Although not all of the questions required a response, it did require a minimum of thirty minutes to complete. The second limitation, also associated with the problem of length, is the arrangement of the questionnaire. For the most part, the questionnaire is arranged so that the respondent provides household information first. When the respondent has completed approximately 75 percent of the questionnaire, questions regarding the individual's attitude are presented. It is possible, although not likely, that individuals' attempted to respond for the household.

One of the more serious limitations, however, deals with the sensitivity of the fear of crime responses. Generally, a Likert format utilizes a minimum five point response scale. This research contained only a three point response category thereby limiting the range of responses, and thus its sensitivity as a measure, and directly contributes to the subsequent results. Specifically, this study sought to examine the differences in the levels of fear reported by men and women. A broader response category may have more clearly described the differences within sex categories, as well as between them and provided a clearer description of the magnitude of difference between the level

of fear between men and women.

In addition to the limitations of the questionnaire, a problem arises in the statistical analysis concerning the fear of rape and its ability to be the sole contributor to the differences in the level of fear between men and women. One problem with this finding is suggested in the factoring of the original offenses. When the 15 offenses are factored and rape is included the results are similar, in that the five offenses still compose Factor 2. However, the fear of rape also is part of this factor. The high variance found in the regression equation of Table 7 and Table 8 suggest that the fear of rape may have an interaction effect with the dependent variable, crimes of fear. Thus, the issue that arises concerns the analysis of the "crimes of fear" variable to determine the impact that each of these has for males and females. Therefore, a multiple classification analysis controlling for sex with the covariates of fear of murder, fear of burglary while at home, fear of burglary while away from home and the fear of being hit by a drunk driver was conducted. The results of this analyses, including the original covariate, fear of rape, is shown in Table 9.

Table 9 indicates that when fear of being hit by a drunk driver is controlled, the mean level of fear for males ranges from $-.36$ to $-.23$, while for females the mean ranges from $+.27$ to $+.17$. The eta for the unadjusted mean is $.31$, the beta adjusted for the covariate is $.20$, and the amount

Table 9. Unadjusted and adjusted deviations of crimes of fear by sex with covariates of fear of rape, fear of murder, fear of burglary while at home and while away from home, and fear of being hit by a drunk driver from the grand mean.*

SEX	UNADJUSTED DEVIATION	ETA	ADJUSTED FOR INDEPENDENTS AND COVARIATES OF FEAR OF RAPE.	BETA
MALE	-0.29		0.07	
FEMALE	0.23		-0.05	
$R^2 = .539$.26		.06

			ADJUSTED FOR INDEPENDENTS AND COVARIATES OF FEAR OF BEING HIT BY A DRUNK DRIVER.	
MALE	-0.36		-0.23	
FEMALE	0.27		0.17	
$R^2 = .406$.31		.20

			ADJUSTED FOR INDEPENDENTS AND COVARIATES OF FEAR OF BURGLARY WHILE AWAY FROM HOME.	
MALE	-0.36		-.25	
FEMALE	0.27		0.21	
$R^2 = .313$.31		.25

			ADJUSTED FOR INDEPENDENTS AND COVARIATES OF FEAR OF MURDER.	
MALE	-0.37		-0.20	
FEMALE	0.28		0.15	
$R^2 = .575$.32		.17

Table 9. Continued.

SEX	UNADJUSTED DEVIATION	ETA	ADJUSTED FOR INDEPENDENTS AND COVARIATES OF FEAR OF BURGLARY WHILE AT HOME.	
				BETA
MALE	-0.36		-0.13	
FEMALE	0.27		0.10	
R ² = .633		.31		.11

of variance explained is 41 percent ($R^2 = .406$). Similarly, for the fear of burglary while away from home the Table shows the mean for males ranging from $-.36$ to $-.25$, while for females the range is $+.27$ to $+.21$. The eta is $.31$, the beta is $.25$ and the variance explained is 31 percent ($R^2 = .313$). In both cases the males fear crime less than females and controlling for the fear of burglary while away from home and the fear of being hit by a drunk driver does not explain the differences in the level of fear between men and women. In examining the fear of murder as a covariate, the unadjusted mean for males is $-.37$ and the adjusted mean is $-.20$. For females the unadjusted mean is $+.28$ and the adjusted mean is $+.15$, the beta is $.17$, and the amount of variance explained is 58 percent ($R^2 = .575$). The high level of explained variance is also found in controlling for the fear of burglary while at home. The unadjusted mean for males is $-.36$ and for females $+.27$ with an eta of $.31$. Adjusting for the covariate, the mean for males is $-.13$ and $.10$ for females with a beta of $.11$. The amount of examined variance is 63 percent ($R^2 = .633$).

There are two important findings regarding this analysis. First, although the amount of explained variance for the fear of murder and the fear of burglary while at home is higher than when the fear of rape is controlled, the effect of the fear of rape is greater on the attitudes towards fear between males and females. By controlling for the fear of rape there is a directional shift in the

responses for both men and women. Men range from $-.30$ to $+.07$ and women shift from $+.23$ to $-.05$. This shift reflects a greater change in attitude, especially for women.

Secondly, this shift in attitude no longer emphasizes the differences in the level of fear between men and women.

That is, when controlling for the fear of rape there is no difference in the level of fear between men and women.

The observations suggest that the fear of rape may be the foundation for the other crimes of fear, especially fear of murder and fear of burglary while at home. Fear of rape reinforces the sense of vulnerability that females experience. Physical vulnerability is exceeded by psychological vulnerability. The perceived lack of control over the offenders motivations and ultimately his actions that may contribute to a higher level of fear. Since rape is generally a sex specific crime, women fear the loss of control more than males may fear murder because males may perceive a greater capacity to control it. Thus, the fear of rape becomes the foundation of crimes females fear. Moreover, another confounding factor to the analysis of the level of fear experienced by women lies in the observation that they may be more victimized but the crimes are not reported and thus the official statistics do not reflect the true prevalence of their victimization. However, further research is suggested, especially in regard to the fear of rape, to explicate these relationships.

Perhaps the most important problem to be addressed is the methodology used. The question arises as to whether the fear of rape has an additive effect, or an interactive effect with the fact scaled variable, "crimes of fear." The use of multiple classification analysis is weakest at this point, and further research on the relationships between the sensitivity of other crimes based on perceived risk, and seriousness is needed.

III. IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Garofalo (1981:840) suggests that, by linking fear to physical harm, we are forced to differentiate the reaction elicited by potential physical harm from potential property loss. For example, the qualitative response of an individual to a car left unlocked at 3 in the morning should be different from finding one's self on a city street at 3 in the morning. Garofalo, in fact, suggests that property crimes perhaps cause "worry" in the individual rather than a more automatic emotional response, such as fear evoked by crimes suggesting potential physical harm. The findings of this research indicate that there is no clear demarcation between those crimes which might evoke worry and those that evoke fear, or between property crimes and personal/violent crimes. The latter includes property crimes associated with potential physical harm. The findings of this study are consistent with the findings in previous research on fear. This study, however, further explicates the fear of crime.

Additionally, the offenses that I have designated as

"unavoidable personal harm", including the fear of being hit by a drunk driver, fear of burglary while at home and away from home, fear of being murdered, and fear of robbery, also have elements of being committed by strangers, rather than someone known. Further, these are also crimes that are most publicized, especially in extreme cases, and thus may evoke fear. With the emergence of different social problems it is possible that the offenses constituting this particular category may change. In fact offenses may actually fluctuate between the worry-fear categories. Further research, especially longitudinal studies, are needed in this area. Additionally, the effect of the media in the development of the level of fear needs to be examined more closely.

As mentioned in Chapter 3 fear can be composed of actual fear and anticipated fear. It is expected that each will produce behavioral responses, yet little is known regarding the relationship between actual and anticipated fear. Further the mechanisms that contribute to each type of fear and the reactions to each type of fear need to be researched. For example, longitudinal studies measuring attitudes toward fear or specific offenses could be re-measured within a 12 month period to determine if there is a relationship between fear and a feared offense which would suggest a relationship between perceived risk and the reporting of fear; and whether the same individual fears the same offenses over time. The findings in this study support

much of the previous research conclusions. Specifically, sex is a very powerful predictor in determining who will fear crime. The findings indicate that generally men do fear less than women. However, controlling for the fear of rape changes this relationship. This study suggests that if the fear of rape could be minimized, women would fear crime less than men.

Previous research does not clearly and consistently indicate the social or demographic characteristics predicting fear of crime. Age, in addition to sex, seems to be the variable most consistently related to the fear of crime. For women, other characteristics such as income, education, community size and previous victimization experience were significantly related to the crimes of fear variable constructed in this study.

Drunk driving, rape, and spouse abuse have proved to be recent examples which have reported increased frequency, while general crime is decreasing. During the past decade each of these has emerged as a social problem. This does not indicate a rise in the real incidence, but an increase in sensitivity, which can occur in a cyclical manner.

There is a common strain in the development of drunk driving as a social problem and the emergence of rape as a social problem that impacts future research. There are two traditions with respect to how social problems are identified or defined. Reasons (1974:382) has conceptualized these approaches as "objective" and

"subjective" orientations.

On the one hand, the objective approach has been the predominant orientation in the sociology of social problems. When social problems are taken as objectively given, the assumption is made that there is widespread value consensus concerning the harmful social conditions, and the subsequent definition of a phenomenon as a social problem is the objective recognition of its harmful effects. The focus of objective orientation research is upon describing and explaining the social organizational sources, or causes of the problem, and programmatic solutions.

On the other hand, the "subjective" approach held lesser status within the discipline until the late 1960's. The labelling or the societal reaction model of deviance (Lemert, 1951), and the perspective of deviance and crime as conflict processes (Liazos, 1972) preceded the theoretical focus of the social problems literature. Social problems theorists emphasized the process of collective definition as the crucial determinant of a social problem. Herbert Blumer (1971:301-302) stated that:

Social problems are not the result of an intrinsic malfunctioning of society but are the result of a process of definition in which a given condition is picked out and identified as a social problem. A social problem does not exist for a society unless it is recognized by that society to exist. In not being aware of a social problem, a society does not perceive it, address it, discuss it, or do anything about it. The problem is just not there. It is necessary, consequently, to consider the question of how social problems arise.

Initial research on rape took the "objective" orientation and focused on the typical issues associated

with this approach, that is what makes people rape. The problem of rape has been analyzed to determine the number of offenses in the population through the use of reported as well as projected statistics, the programmatic solutions, such as the Rape Crisis Line, the development of new police procedures in dealing with rape victims, and, more recently, the effect of rehabilitation of rapists.

There is virtually no research concerned with the emergent nature of the issue of rape as a social problem. Recently, Gusfield (1981) in The Culture of Public Problems focused on the history of public concern with drunk driving. He examined the creation of a collective definition of evil, the "killer drunk" and the role of law and science in the construction of a social problem.

There are a number of research implications for the subjective orientation. Some thought and research on the emergence of social problems through collective movements have recognized the necessary role public fear has played, from initial recognition through the claim-making of certain parties, to that of social endorsement in which widespread mobilization of action occurs (Spector and Kitsuse, 1977:78-81; Blumer, 1971:302-304). For example, Sutherland (1969:75) pointed out that the rapid diffusion of the sexual psychopath laws in the 1930s and 40s was related to the generation and maintenance of high fear levels.

This tracing of arousing public fear has led to legislation often focusing on the control of potential

offenders (Sutherland, 1969; Becker, 1963). Generally, the transformation of private concerns into a public issue requires that the phenomenon achieve importance and be perceived as a legitimate concern (Ross and Stains, 1971). The perception of the phenomenon as dangerous and fear invoking appears to be a crucial contingency in the social construction of a social problem and the creation of coercive law to control it. The issue of rape has, to some extent, followed this pattern. Perhaps the proportionate number of rapes has remained constant, but only in the last five years has a "national concern" emerged. This seems to have followed a typical pattern: the organization of pressure groups; increased media focus; and attempts at legislative action. Since 1978 and afterward, national attention has been focused on rape through the efforts of a number of groups organized for the specific purpose of increasing public concern and awareness about rape. In general, the National Organization of Women has led the way, bringing to the attention of legislators and the public, issues affecting women. The consciousness-raising groups of the 1960's and 1970's have given way to programs especially designed for addressing women's needs. Specifically for rape, the Rape Crisis Line was established, as well as counseling services for the individual and her family.

In examining rape as a social problem, a number of implications for further research and analysis may be drawn. In order for rape as a social movement to sustain itself,

the perception of the risk of rape must increase to maintain the legitimacy of the public's concern. Gusfield (1981:53-76) argued that the creation of "scientific fictions" through the dramatic presentation of facts and the collection of data premised on the assumption of a strong causal involvement of alcohol and fatal crashes have been instrumental in creating the personal images of high collective risk.

Rape, as an emergent social problem, has followed a similar pattern to that of drunk driving. One of the latent functions, as rape has emerged as a social problem, is the higher level of fear that has been elicited. This has implications for the quality of women's lives and their well-being, and should be further examined. Further, the mechanisms utilized to evoke fear and maintain an atmosphere of a high level of perceived risk should be researched. Additionally, observing organized efforts at law-making in the future course of this issue will also be interesting, especially in regard to initial penalties and repeat-offender conviction penalties.

There are also broader implications with regard to the fear of rape. As this study suggests, the fear of rape may overwhelm the fear of any other offense. The 1967 President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice suggested that certain kinds of crimes -personal crimes- produce more alarm than others. Further, the report states (1967:18) that "[t]he crimes that concern Americans

most are those that affect their personal safety - at home, at work or in the streets. The most frequent and serious of these crimes of violence against the person are willful homicide, forcible rape, aggravated assault and robbery."

The consequences of fear of personal attack can be viewed as damaging to the individual, as well as society. Garofalo (1981) suggests that the media, particularly in large cities, paint a picture of social outcomes supposedly produced by the fear of crime, such as a city held hostage. On the one hand, individual responses to fear may have little impact on the broader social processes. On the other hand, when the individual fear is placed in a broader framework, the quality of life becomes the issue.

The quality of life issue has been discussed at length for the past decade. Difficulty arises in its definition, as it is composed of human values, human judgments and perceptions of social reality (Reiss, 1972:392). For some people, the "fear of crime" reflects a specific fear of being physically assaulted. For these people, the fear of crime affects the quality of their lives. Constant worry can lead to withdrawal from social activities into the safer isolation of one's home.

However, most people are not incapacitated by the fear of crime. Garofalo and Laub (1981:248) suggest that the fear of a direct attack is connected with a concern about a whole range of "misbehaviors." For example, the concern of an older woman having to walk past a group of noisy, male,

adolescents in a low income area. They suggest that the underlying factor responsible for producing fear may be a concern for community, or the desire for the maintenance of standards consistent with values and life styles of a particular individual. From this perspective, the fear of rape may be seen as a reflection of a disrupted sense of community (cf. Jacobs, 1961; Wilson, 1969; Conklin, 1975).

How people express their concern about improper public behavior varies. For women this concern is found in the restriction of activity. Riger et al. (1978:280) state that "[a]lthough there may be a variety of sources of womens' fear of crime, the major effect of the greater fear is uniform: greater restriction of women's freedom of action." For example, Hindelang and Davis (1972) report that women use more precautionary strategies than men. Similarly, Riger et al. (1978) found that women "worry" more than men when they are alone at night or when they are in places that are perceived as dangerous. As a result of worry, women were found to engage less frequently in activities at night, outside the home.

Further, while fear is associated with women's restricted behavior, women who do not heed these restrictions may be blamed for acting too freely, especially if they are victimized. For example, in a study conducted by Cann et al. (1978) it was found that when rape took place in a dangerous setting, such as a park at night, more responsibility for the rape was assigned to the victim,

since people believe she should have known better. Thus women have been blamed as rape victims and now they are encouraged to restrict their freedom. The irony is that these restrictions do not guaranty freedom from victimization.

Therefore, further research is suggested in the areas of precautionary behavior beyond personal activity restriction. For example, the effectiveness of the adoption of precautionary, preventive behaviors, such as locking doors and windows, needs to be examined in light of previous and/or personal property victimizations to give us a more in depth understanding of the reactions to fear. Also the precautionary behaviors adopted by women who work outside the home and in the home should be examined. Further investigation should examine precautionary behavior with regard to community size to determine if rural households use different preventive measures, as well as to determine the relationship of impinging urbanization on their behavior. Moreover, research should also examine the characteristics of the community, such as the arrangement of the community, and the individual's exposure to crime, and their subsequent fear level. Additionally, the strategies used to manipulate the environment to minimize risk and avoidance behaviors need to be examined in more depth. Since the fear of crime affects the generalized concern for the community and the individuals' satisfaction in the community, understanding the impact of crime will better

enable us to assess the forces affecting the quality of life in the United States.

Conclusion:

The focus of applied sociology should be to reduce unreasonable fear, especially the unreasonable fear of rape experience by women. There are implications for education, policy implementation and community satisfaction. Generally by examining peoples' fear of specific offenses, law enforcement agencies, educators and the public should focus their concern and develop practices of enforcement, education, and policy development. For example, women's groups could further emphasize physical defense methods and networking techniques to reduce fear. Also police officers who educate the public in such programs as Neighborhood Watch could emphasize new preventive behaviors and help to inform the public about the real incidence of crime so as to allay unreasonable fear of victimization. With more in depth information about rural areas, extension agents could disseminate information about crime prevention, as well as develop more specific policies and programs to meet the needs of the rural community. A somewhat more radical move would be to have tighter controls on the media in their attempt to report crime, especially rape. Rape, or any other crime should not be held from public view, however, less dramatic reporting might reduce womens' fear. What is called for is ethical standard in which the latent function of increasing fear goes unnoticed. Finally, going hand in

hand with reducing crime, is increasing community satisfaction and thus the quality of life. In general, as individuals perceive less fear, the community is better able to focus on other problems, thereby improving the satisfaction of members in the community.

In conclusion, from a scientific perspective, research in the fear of crime should continue indefinitely. Garofalo (1981:856) has suggested that the complete elimination of fear of crime is not only impossible, but probably undesirable. Some fear is functional in that people should take some precautions. If fear were totally absent, an individual would not be motivated to take reasonable precautions. In the same vein, an intense level of fear can be dysfunctional for the individual by causing unnecessary avoidance of potentially rewarding interactions and distrust of others. Research is needed as to how much fear is "reasonable" and at what point fear, or the lack of fear, becomes dysfunctional. The elimination of fear would certainly not eliminate the risk of being victimized.

Other areas needing research, in addition to fear of crime, involve the perceptions of police effectiveness, especially in regard to personal victimizations. Additionally, such issues as faith in the judicial system, the changing nature of offenses that compose crimes, as well as the reactions to crime are questions that are continually raised by research and lead to new paths of inquiry. Thus, after more than a decade of research, the paradox of the

fear of crime and women is only one of many inquiries that will still serve as the basis for future research questions.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE: CRIME IN LOUISIANA

CRIME IN LOUISIANA

**A Survey Conducted by the
Department of Rural Sociology
Louisiana Agricultural Experiment Station
Louisiana State University Agricultural Center**

INTRODUCTION

You have been selected to participate in the CRIME IN LOUISIANA SURVEY being conducted by the Louisiana Agricultural Experiment Station and the Department of Rural Sociology, Louisiana State University Agricultural Center. We believe that the information collected by this survey will be of great benefit to Louisianans and to those agencies attempting to reduce crime.

The success of this study is dependent upon your voluntary cooperation. Since we are not able to contact everyone in the State, your answers are very important. Your answers will be kept CONFIDENTIAL. No information will be released which will make it possible to identify the person who supplied it.

PLEASE READ THE QUESTIONS CAREFULLY BEFORE YOU ANSWER.

THANK YOU.

CRIME IN LOUISIANA

PART I

We would like to ask your opinion about each of the following statements. Please circle the answer which best describes **YOUR OPINION**.

1. Within the past year or two, do you think that crime in your parish has increased, decreased, or remained about the same?

INCREASED REMAINED ABOUT THE SAME DECREASED

2. Please circle the answer indicating how you feel about the following statements.

- | | | | | |
|--|-------------------|-------|----------|----------------------|
| a. I feel safe going anywhere in my community in the daytime | STRONGLY
AGREE | AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY
DISAGREE |
| b. I feel safe going anywhere in my community after dark | STRONGLY
AGREE | AGREE | DISAGREE | STRONGLY
DISAGREE |

3. Of the following types of crimes, please circle which best shows how you feel about the seriousness of each crime problem **IN YOUR COMMUNITY**.

Seriousness of the Crime Problem

	NOT A PROBLEM	SOMEWHAT A PROBLEM	A SERIOUS PROBLEM
a. Burglary (unlawful entry into a building)	NOT	SOMEWHAT	SERIOUS
b. Illegal drugs	NOT	SOMEWHAT	SERIOUS
c. Drunk driving	NOT	SOMEWHAT	SERIOUS
d. Embezzlement	NOT	SOMEWHAT	SERIOUS
e. Forgery/Counterfeiting	NOT	SOMEWHAT	SERIOUS
f. Fraud	NOT	SOMEWHAT	SERIOUS
g. Gambling	NOT	SOMEWHAT	SERIOUS
h. Prostitution	NOT	SOMEWHAT	SERIOUS
i. Rape	NOT	SOMEWHAT	SERIOUS
j. Assault (attack upon another person for the purpose of inflicting bodily injury)	NOT	SOMEWHAT	SERIOUS
k. Robbery (use or threat of force to steal from someone)	NOT	SOMEWHAT	SERIOUS

	<u>NOT A PROBLEM</u>	<u>SOMEWHAT A PROBLEM</u>	<u>A SERIOUS PROBLEM</u>
l. Traffic violations (speeding, parking)	NOT	SOMEWHAT	SERIOUS
m. Motor vehicle theft	NOT	SOMEWHAT	SERIOUS
n. Livestock theft or rustlings	NOT	SOMEWHAT	SERIOUS
o. Theft or larceny (stealing, without using force)	NOT	SOMEWHAT	SERIOUS
p. Obscene or threatening telephone calls	NOT	SOMEWHAT	SERIOUS
q. Vandalism (damage or destruction of property)	NOT	SOMEWHAT	SERIOUS
r. Unlawful possession and use of weapons	NOT	SOMEWHAT	SERIOUS
s. Murder	NOT	SOMEWHAT	SERIOUS
t. Arson (setting fires)	NOT	SOMEWHAT	SERIOUS
u. Trespassing	NOT	SOMEWHAT	SERIOUS
v. Poaching or illegal hunting or fishing	NOT	SOMEWHAT	SERIOUS
w. Other (Please specify)	NOT	SOMEWHAT	SERIOUS

PART II

We would like to ask you some questions about crime occurring to **YOU OR ANY MEMBERS OF YOUR HOUSEHOLD**. The following questions refer to crimes which occurred during the past 12 months (Circle your answers).

VANDALISM AROUND THE HOME DURING THE PAST 12 MONTHS

1. During the past 12 months, did anyone damage, destroy, or attempt to destroy your home or any property around your home?

a. NO - - - If you answered no, go to question 8.

b. YES

1. How many times? _____

2. What is the estimated replacement or repair cost for all incidences? \$

IF YOU ANSWERED YES TO THIS QUESTION, PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS CONCERNING THE MOST SERIOUS INCIDENT WHICH OCCURRED TO YOU DURING THE PAST 12 MONTHS

2. When did the most serious act of vandalism take place?

DURING THE DAY

AT NIGHT

DON'T KNOW

3. What type of property was damaged or destroyed as a result of this incident? (Please describe briefly).

4. Where was the location of the property that was damaged or destroyed as a result of this incident?

THE HOUSE EXTERIOR

PROPERTY INSIDE THE HOUSE

THE HOUSE INTERIOR

PROPERTY OUTSIDE THE HOUSE

5. What is the estimated replacement or repair costs of the property damaged as a result of this incident?

Estimated Cost \$

6. Was any of this loss recovered through insurance?

NO

YES

CLAIM PENDING

7. Were the police or other law enforcement officers informed of this incident?

NO

YES

MOTOR VEHICLE THEFT DURING THE PAST 12 MONTHS

8. During the past 12 months, did anyone steal or try to steal a car, truck, motorcycle, or farm machinery owned by YOU OR OTHER MEMBERS OF YOUR HOUSEHOLD?

a. NO - - If you answered no, go to question 15.

b. YES

1. How many times?

2. What is the estimated cost for all incidences? \$ _____

IF YOU ANSWERED YES TO QUESTION 8, PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS CONCERNING THE MOST SERIOUS INCIDENT WHICH OCCURRED TO YOU DURING THE PAST 12 MONTHS.

9. What type of motor vehicle was stolen?

CAR
VAN
MOTORCYCLE/MOPED

PICK-UP TRUCK
TRUCK (other than pick-up)

TRACTOR
COMBINE
OTHER FARM VEHICLE

10. When did the most serious incident of theft or attempted theft of the motor vehicle take place?

DURING THE DAY

AT NIGHT

DON'T KNOW

11. Where did this theft or attempted theft of a motor vehicle take place?

IN A RURAL AREA
IN A TOWN OF LESS THAN 2,500 PEOPLE
IN A TOWN OF 2,500 TO 9,999 PEOPLE
IN A SMALL CITY OF 10,000 to 24,999 PEOPLE
IN A CITY OF 25,000 to 49,999 PEOPLE
IN A LARGE CITY OF 50,000 PEOPLE OR MORE

12. What was the estimated cost to replace or repair any damage done to the motor vehicle as a result of this incident?

Estimated cost \$ _____

13. Was any of this loss recovered through insurance?

NO

YES

CLAIM PENDING

14. Were the police or other law enforcement officers informed of this incident?

NO

YES

THEFT AROUND YOUR HOME DURING THE PAST 12 MONTHS

15. During the past 12 months did anyone steal:

a. Anything from inside your home, such as a stereo, T.V., jewelry, gun, or purse, etc.?

1. NO
2. YES

a. How many times? _____

b. Anything that is kept outside your home such as a bicycle, a garden hose, farm tools, or livestock?

1. NO
2. YES

a. How many times? _____

c. Parts attached to a car, truck, or farm machinery owned by any members of your household, such as a battery, hub-caps, or tapedeck?

1. NO
2. YES

a. How many times? _____

16. What is the estimated total cost of all losses? \$ _____

IF YOUR ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS 15a, 15b and 15c WERE ALL NO, GO TO QUESTION 22.

IF ANY OF YOUR ANSWERS WERE YES TO QUESTIONS 15a, 15b, or 15c, PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS CONCERNING THE MOST SERIOUS INCIDENT WHICH OCCURRED TO YOU DURING THE PAST 12 MONTHS.

17. What was the most serious incident of theft?

**THEFT IN OR AROUND THE HOME AND PREMISES
THEFT—PARTS ATTACHED TO A VEHICLE**

18. When did the most serious incident of theft take place?

DURING THE DAY

AT NIGHT

DON'T KNOW

19. What was the estimated cost to replace or repair property stolen and damaged as a result of this incident?

Estimated cost \$ _____

20. Was any of this loss recovered through insurance?

NO

YES

CLAIM PENDING

21. Were the police or other law enforcement officers informed of this incident?

NO

YES

THEFT FROM PERSONS IN PLACES OTHER THAN THE HOME DURING THE PAST 12 MONTHS

22. During the past 12 months, did **YOU OR ANY MEMBER OF YOUR HOUSEHOLD** have:

a. Anything stolen from them while they were away from home, for instance, at work, school, in a theater, in a restaurant, or while traveling?

1. NO
2. YES
 - a. How many times?

b. A purse or wallet snatched or pockets picked?

1. NO
2. YES
 - a. How many times?

c. Something stolen from inside a car or truck, such as packages or clothing?

1. NO
2. YES
 - a. How many times?

IF YOUR ANSWERS TO ALL QUESTIONS 22a, b, AND c WERE NO, GO TO QUESTION 30.

IF ANY OF YOUR ANSWERS WERE YES TO QUESTIONS 22a, b, OR c, PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS CONCERNING THE MOST SERIOUS INCIDENT WHICH OCCURRED TO YOU DURING THE PAST 12 MONTHS.

24. What type of theft which occurred to you or any member of your household was the most serious?

SOMETHING STOLEN OFF THE PERSON
 SOMETHING STOLEN FROM A MOTOR VEHICLE
 OTHER (Please specify)

25. When did the most serious incident of theft take place?

DURING THE DAY AT NIGHT DON'T KNOW

26. Where did this theft occur?

IN A RURAL AREA
 IN A TOWN OF LESS THAN 2,500 PEOPLE
 IN A TOWN OF 2,500 to 9,999 PEOPLE
 IN A SMALL CITY OF 10,000 TO 24,999 PEOPLE
 IN A CITY OF 25,000 to 49,999 PEOPLE
 IN A LARGE CITY OF 50,000 PEOPLE OR MORE

27. How much did it cost to replace or repair property stolen or damaged as a result of this incident?

Estimated cost \$

28. Was any of this loss recovered through insurance?

NO YES CLAIM PENDING

29. Were the police or other law enforcement officers informed of this incident in any way?

NO YES

BURGLARY—BREAKING AND ENTERING OF YOUR HOME DURING THE PAST 12 MONTHS

30. During the past 12 months:

a. Did anyone break into or somehow illegally get into your home, apartment, garage, or another building on your property (do not include business property, second homes, or camps)?

1. NO

2. YES

a. How many times? _____

b. Did you find a door jimmied, a lock forced, or any other signs of an attempted break in (do not include business property, second homes, or camps)?

1. NO

2. YES

a. How many times? _____

IF YOUR ANSWERS TO BOTH QUESTIONS 30a and 30b WERE NO, GO TO QUESTION 36.

IF EITHER OF YOUR ANSWERS WERE YES TO QUESTIONS 30a or 30b, PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS CONCERNING THE MOST SERIOUS INCIDENT WHICH OCCURRED TO YOU DURING THE PAST 12 MONTHS.

31. When did the most serious incident of attempted burglary or burglary take place?

DURING THE DAY

AT NIGHT

DON'T KNOW

32. Where did the most serious incident of burglary or attempted burglary occur?

IN MY HOME

OUTSIDE MY HOME

33. How much did it cost to replace or repair property stolen or damaged as a result of this incident (IF NOT REPORTED IN PREVIOUS QUESTIONS)?

a. Estimated cost \$ _____

b. Did you report this cost:

1. Under "THEFT"

a. NO

b. YES

2. Under "VANDALISM"?

a. NO

b. YES

34. Was any of this loss recovered through insurance?

NO

YES

CLAIM PENDING

35. Were the police or other law enforcement officers informed of this incident?

NO

YES

VIOLENT CRIME DURING THE PAST 12 MONTHS

36. During the past 12 months, were **YOU OR ANY MEMBER OF YOUR HOUSEHOLD** a victim of any of the following violent crimes:

a. Did anyone take something or attempt to take something directly from you or any member of your household by using force, such as by a stick-up, mugging, or threat?

1. NO
2. YES

a. How many times did this occur?

b. Did anyone beat-up, attack, or hit you or any member of your household?

1. NO
2. YES

a. How many times did this occur?

c. Were you or any member of your household knifed, shot, shot at, or attacked with some other weapon by anyone?

1. NO
2. YES

a. How many times did this occur? _____

d. Did anyone threaten to beat-up or threaten you or any member of your household with a knife, gun, or some other weapon?

1. NO
2. YES

a. How many times did this occur? _____

e. Did anyone rape or attempt to rape you or any member of your household?

1. NO
2. YES

a. How many incidences like this occurred? _____

f. Were any members of your household murdered?

1. NO
2. YES

a. How many were murdered? _____

IF YOUR ANSWERS TO ALL PARTS OF QUESTION 36 (a,b,c,d,e, AND f) WERE NO, GO TO QUESTION 46.

IF YOU ANSWERED YES TO ANY PART OF QUESTION 36 (a,b,c,d,e, OR f), PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS CONCERNING THE MOST SERIOUS INCIDENT WHICH OCCURRED TO YOU DURING THE PAST 12 MONTHS.

37. Were you or any member of your household physically injured by violent crime?

NO

YES

38. What was the estimated total costs for medical expenses?

Estimated Cost \$ _____

39. To what member or members of your household did the most serious incident of violent crime occur?

TO YOU (THE PERSON COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE)
TO SOME OTHER MEMBER OF YOUR HOUSEHOLD (If so, what relationship is
this person to you?) _____

40. What was the nature of this incident?

ROBBERY WITH A WEAPON
MURDER
RAPE

ROBBERY WITHOUT A WEAPON
ASSAULT/BATTERY
THREAT WITH A WEAPON
THREAT WITHOUT A WEAPON

41. When did the most serious incident of violent crime take place?

DURING THE DAY

AT NIGHT

DON'T KNOW

42. What were the total medical expenses as a result of this incident?

Estimated Cost \$ _____

43. Where did this violent crime take place?

IN A RURAL AREA
IN A TOWN OF LESS THAN 2,500 PEOPLE
IN A TOWN OF 2,500 TO 9,999 PEOPLE
IN A SMALL CITY OF 10,000 TO 24,999 PEOPLE
IN A CITY OF 25,000 TO 49,999 PEOPLE
IN A LARGE CITY OF 50,000 PEOPLE OR MORE

44. Were any of the medical expenses covered by insurance?

NO

YES

CLAIM PENDING

45. Were the police or other law enforcement officers informed of this incident in any way?

NO

YES

CRIME AROUND SECOND HOMES OR CAMPS DURING THE PAST 12 MONTHS

46. Do you or does any member of your household own a camp or second home?

a. NO - - - If you answered no, go to question 51.

b. YES

1. Is this property located in Louisiana?

a. NO - - - If you answer no, go to question 51.

b. YES

1. In what parish is this property located?

47. Was there any theft around the second home or camp?

a. NO

b. YES

1. How many times? _____

2. What was the estimated cost of all losses? \$ _____

48. Was there any vandalism of the second home or camp?

- a. NO
- b. YES
 - 1. How many times? _____
 - 2. What was the estimated cost of all damage? \$ _____

49. Was there any burglary/breaking and entering at the second home or camp?

- a. NO
- b. YES
 - 1. How many times? _____
 - 2. What was the estimated cost of all losses? \$ _____

50. Was there any arson of the second home or camp?

- a. NO
- b. YES
 - 1. How many times? _____
 - 2. What was the estimated cost of all losses? \$ _____

CRIME AROUND BUSINESS OR RENTAL PROPERTY DURING THE PAST 12 MONTHS

51. Do you or does any member of your household own a business or rental property?

- a. NO - - - If you answered no, go to question 56.
- b. YES
 - 1. In what parish is it located? _____

52. Was there any theft around the business or rental property?

- a. NO
- b. YES
 - 1. How many times? _____
 - 2. What was the estimated cost of all losses? \$ _____

53. Was there any vandalism of the business or rental property?

- a. NO
- b. YES
 - 1. How many times? _____
 - 2. What was the estimated cost of all losses? \$ _____

54. Was there any burglary/breaking and entering at your business or rental property?

- a. NO
- b. YES
 - 1. How many times? _____
 - 2. What was the estimated cost of all losses? \$ _____

55. Was there any arson of your business or rental property?

- a. NO
- b. YES
 - 1. How many times? _____
 - 2. What was the estimated cost of all losses? \$...

CRIME DURING THE LAST FIVE YEARS

56. During the last 5 years, have YOU OR ANY MEMBER OF YOUR HOUSEHOLD ever been a victim of any of the following crimes:

- a. Vandalism (over \$100)?
 - 1. NO
 - 2. YES
 - a. How many times? _____
- b. Motor vehicle theft?
 - 1. NO
 - 2. YES
 - a. How many times? _____
- c. Other theft (over \$100)?
 - 1. NO
 - 2. YES
 - a. How many times? _____
- d. Burglary/breaking and entering?
 - 1. NO
 - 2. YES
 - a. How many times? _____
- e. Robbery—taking something by force or threat of force?
 - 1. NO
 - 2. YES
 - a. How many times? _____
- f. Assault/battery?
 - 1. NO
 - 2. YES
 - a. How many times? _____
- g. Rape?
 - 1. NO
 - 2. YES
 - a. How many incidences? _____
- h. Murder?
 - 1. NO
 - 2. YES
 - a. How many were murdered? _____

PART III

Now we would like to ask you some questions about crime prevention measures and home security.

1. How effective do you think the following suggestions are for reducing crime in your area? Circle the answer that best describes **YOUR OPINION**.

	Circle one answer for each item		
	NOT EFFECTIVE	SOMEWHAT EFFECTIVE	VERY EFFECTIVE
a. Night curfew for young people	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
b. Better locks on homes	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
c. Better outside lighting around houses	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
d. Increasing patrols by local law enforcement	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
e. More homes with burglar alarm systems	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
f. Putting names of juvenile offenders in the local newspaper	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
g. More jobs for the unemployed	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
h. Educational programs to teach more respect for property	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
i. Local courts giving out stiffer penalties	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
j. Neighbors looking out for each other's property	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
k. More recreational opportunities for young people	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
l. More opportunities for people to learn about locks and alarms	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
m. Organizing local crime prevention groups	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
n. Having a gun or other weapon at home	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
o. More crime prevention information on television and radio programs	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY

	NOT EFFECTIVE	SOMEWHAT EFFECTIVE	VERY EFFECTIVE
p. More crime prevention information in newspapers	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
q. More crime prevention information in public meetings	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
r. Hire more law enforcement officials	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
s. Develop a system for law enforcement officials to respond faster to calls	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
t. Improved law enforcement officer training	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
u. Higher qualifications for law enforcement officers	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
v. Legally posting your land	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
w. Better enforcement and stiffer penalties for the use and distribution of drugs	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY

PART IV

1. The following items refer to a number of home security devices and home characteristics. Please circle YES if you have the item **AT YOUR HOME** or **NO** if you do not.

Do you have any of these:

Circle an answer for each device

- | | | |
|---|----|-----|
| a. Automatic timers that will turn your lights on and off at different times when you are not at home | NO | YES |
| b. Security light attached to your home garage, or other buildings | NO | YES |
| c. Security light on your property that is not attached to a building | NO | YES |
| d. Street light near your home | NO | YES |
| e. Dead bolt lock on all home entrance doors | NO | YES |
| f. Security chain on all home entrance doors | NO | YES |
| g. Doorviewer or "peephole" on home entrance doors | NO | YES |
| h. Window latch or lock on all windows | NO | YES |
| i. Burglar alarm system | NO | YES |
| j. Dog | NO | YES |
| k. Shotgun or rifle | NO | YES |
| l. Handgun | NO | YES |

PART V

1. Please indicate how often you do the following to protect yourself and your property **AT YOUR HOME**.

Circle one answer for each practice

How often do you:

- | | | | | |
|--|--------|------------|--------------|-------|
| a. Mark valuable house-hold property with an identification number or other markings | ALWAYS | FREQUENTLY | OCCASIONALLY | NEVER |
| b. Lock all your doors at night when someone is home | ALWAYS | FREQUENTLY | OCCASIONALLY | NEVER |
| c. Lock all your doors during the day when someone is home | ALWAYS | FREQUENTLY | OCCASIONALLY | NEVER |
| d. Lock all your doors when the house is vacant during the day for a short time | ALWAYS | FREQUENTLY | OCCASIONALLY | NEVER |
| e. Lock all your doors when the house is vacant at night for a short time | ALWAYS | FREQUENTLY | OCCASIONALLY | NEVER |
| f. Lock all your doors when no one is at home for more than a day | ALWAYS | FREQUENTLY | OCCASIONALLY | NEVER |
| g. Lock or latch windows during the day when someone is at home | ALWAYS | FREQUENTLY | OCCASIONALLY | NEVER |
| h. Lock or latch windows at night when someone is at home | ALWAYS | FREQUENTLY | OCCASIONALLY | NEVER |
| i. Lock or latch windows when your home is vacant for a short time | ALWAYS | FREQUENTLY | OCCASIONALLY | NEVER |
| j. Leave a radio or television on when your house is vacant for a short time | ALWAYS | FREQUENTLY | OCCASIONALLY | NEVER |
| k. Leave lights on at night when no one is home for a short time | ALWAYS | FREQUENTLY | OCCASIONALLY | NEVER |

l. Arrange for a neighbor to watch your home and property when you are out-of-town	ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
m. Notify police or sheriff when the house will be vacant for more than one day	ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
n. Use an automatic timer for lights or radio when the house will be vacant for more than one day	ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
o. Arrange to have mail, milk, or newspaper deliveries discontinued when the house is vacant for more than one day	ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
p. Arrange to have mail, milk or newspaper deliveries taken care of by a neighbor or friend when the house is vacant for more than one day	ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
q. Arrange to have the grass mowed and yard maintained when the house is vacant for an extended length of time	ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
r. Legally post your property	ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
s. Carry a firearm when you leave home	ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
t. Carry non-lethal means of defense, such as mace, whistle, etc.	ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER

PART VI

In this section we are interested in finding out how likely people think they are to be victims of various crimes and their fear of becoming a victim.

1. For each type of crime listed below, please circle how likely you think it is to happen to YOU during the next 12 months.

	<u>NOT LIKELY</u>	<u>SOMEWHAT LIKELY</u>	<u>VERY LIKELY</u>
a. Having someone break into your home while you're away	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
b. Being raped	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
c. Being hit by a drunken driver while driving your car	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
d. Having someone break into your home while you're home	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
e. Having something taken from you by force	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
f. Having strangers loiter near your home late at night	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
g. Being threatened with a knife, club, or gun	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
h. Having a group of juveniles disturb the peace near your home	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
i. Being beaten up by a stranger	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
j. Being murdered	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
k. Having your car stolen	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
l. Being cheated or conned out of your money	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
m. Being approached by people begging for money	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
n. Receiving an obscene phone call ..	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
o. Being sold contaminated food	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
p. Being beaten up by someone you know	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
q. Having someone illegally trespass on your property	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY

2. There are many different kinds of crime. Some are considered to be very serious, others not so serious. We are interested in **YOUR OPINION** about the seriousness of each type of crime listed below. Please circle how serious each of the following crimes are.

	NOT SERIOUS	SOMEWHAT SERIOUS	VERY SERIOUS
a. Having someone break into your home while you're away	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
b. Being raped	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
c. Being hit by a drunken driver while driving your car	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
d. Having someone break into your home while you're home	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
e. Having something taken from you by force	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
f. Having strangers loiter near your home late at night	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
g. Being threatened with a knife, club, or gun	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
h. Having a group of juveniles disturb the peace near your home	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
i. Being beaten up by a stranger	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
j. Being murdered	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
k. Having your car stolen	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
l. Being cheated or conned out of your money	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
m. Being approached by people begging for money	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
n. Receiving an obscene phone call ..	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
o. Being sold contaminated food	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
p. Being beaten up by someone you know	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
q. Having someone illegally trespass on your property	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY

3. At one time or another, most of us have experienced fear about becoming the victim of a crime. Below is a list of different types of crime. We are interested in how afraid YOU are about becoming the victim of each type of crime in your everyday life during the next 12 months. Please circle the response which best describes your fear about the crime.

	NOT AFRAID	SOMEWHAT AFRAID	VERY AFRAID
a. Having someone break into your home while you're away	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
b. Being raped	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
c. Being hit by a drunken driver while driving your car	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
d. Having someone break into your home while you're home	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
e. Having something taken from you by force	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
f. Having strangers loiter near your home late at night	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
g. Being threatened with a knife, club, or gun	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
h. Having a group of juveniles disturb the peace near your home	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
i. Being beaten up by a stranger	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
j. Being murdered	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
k. Having your car stolen	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
l. Being cheated or conned out of your money	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
m. Being approached by people begging for money	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
n. Receiving an obscene phone call ..	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
o. Being sold contaminated food	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
p. Being beaten up by someone you know	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
q. Having someone illegally trespass on your property	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY

PART VII

Finally, we would like to ask a few questions about you and your family. Please circle the correct answer or write your answer in the spaces provided.

1. What is your sex?
 - a. MALE
 - b. FEMALE
2. How old are you? _____
3. What is your race?
 - a. WHITE
 - b. BLACK
 - c. OTHER
4. What is your present marital status?
 - a. NEVER MARRIED
 - b. MARRIED
 - c. SEPARATED OR DIVORCED
 - d. WIDOWED
5. What is the highest level of education you have completed?
 - a. NEVER WENT TO SCHOOL
 - b. SOME GRADE SCHOOL (GRADES 1-8)
 - c. SOME HIGH SCHOOL (GRADES 9-12)
 - d. COMPLETED HIGH SCHOOL OR EQUIVALENT
 - e. SOME COLLEGE OR VOCATIONAL SCHOOL, BEYOND HIGH SCHOOL
 - f. COMPLETED A VOCATIONAL TRAINING PROGRAM, BEYOND HIGH SCHOOL
 - g. COMPLETED A TWO-YEAR COLLEGE DEGREE
 - h. COMPLETED A FOUR-YEAR COLLEGE DEGREE
 - i. COMPLETED A GRADUATE OR PROFESSIONAL DEGREE
6. What is your relationship to the head of your household?
 - a. I AM THE HEAD OR CO-HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD
 - b. SON OR DAUGHTER OF HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD
 - c. OTHER RELATIVE (Please specify) _____
 - d. OTHER, NOT RELATED (Please specify) _____
7. Is there usually one member of the household at home during the day?
 - a. ALMOST ALWAYS
 - b. SOMETIMES
 - c. NEVER
8. Including yourself, how many people currently live in your household?

9. Write in the number of people in your household (including yourself) who are in each of the following groups
Do not include dependents not living at home (such as college students).

- a. NUMBER OF MEMBERS UNDER 12 YEARS OF AGE
- b. NUMBER OF MEMBERS 12-19 YEARS OF AGE
- c. NUMBER OF MEMBERS 20-64 YEARS OF AGE
- d. NUMBER OF MEMBERS 65 YEARS OR OLDER

10. What is your current employment status?

- a. FULL-TIME
- b. PART-TIME
- c. RETIRED
- d. UNEMPLOYED

11. What is the primary occupation of the male co-head of the household? (If retired give former occupation)

.....

12. Does the male co-head of the household have a second or part-time occupation?

- a. NO
- b. YES (specify)

13. What is the primary occupation of the female co-head of the household? (If retired give former occupation)

.....

14. Does the female co-head of the household have a second or part-time occupation?

- a. NO
- b. YES (specify)

15. In what parish do you live?

16. Where do you live?

- a. IN A RURAL AREA
- b. IN A TOWN OR LESS THAN 2,500 PEOPLE
- c. IN A TOWN OF 2,500 TO 9,999 PEOPLE
- d. IN A SMALL CITY OF 10,000 TO 24,999 PEOPLE
- e. IN A CITY OF 25,000 TO 49,999 PEOPLE
- f. IN A LARGE CITY OF 50,000 PEOPLE OR MORE

17. Do you live in:

- a. A SINGLE FAMILY HOUSE
- b. AN APARTMENT OR DUPLEX (HOUSE WITH TWO OR MORE FAMILIES)
- c. A MOBILE HOME OR TRAILER
- d. OTHER (Please specify)

18. Does your family own (buying) your family dwelling?

- a. NO
- b. YES

19. Does your family rent your dwelling place?

- a. NO
- b. YES

20. Does your family live in a rent-free dwelling place?

- a. NO
- b. YES

21. Where is your home located?

- a. NEAR DOWNTOWN AREA
- b. AWAY FROM DOWNTOWN, BUT WITHIN THE CITY LIMITS
- c. OUTSIDE CITY LIMITS, WITHIN A 15-MINUTE DRIVE
- d. OUTSIDE CITY LIMITS, MORE THAN A 15-MINUTE DRIVE

22. How many years have you lived in your present community? _____ yrs.

23. How many years have you lived in your present house or apartment? _____ yrs.

24. How close is your home to an Interstate Highway Interchange?

- a. WITHIN 10 MILES
- b. 10 TO 25 MILES
- c. MORE THAN 25 MILES

25. Do you or does any other household member farm or grow timber on a full- or part-time basis?

- a. YES, FULL-TIME
- b. YES, PART-TIME
- c. NO - - - If you answer no, go to question 29.

26. How many acres did this person farm in 1983? _____ acres

27. What is the major agricultural enterprise in which you are engaged?

CORN	WHEAT
DAIRY	VEGETABLES
BEEF	FORESTRY/TIMBER
SWINE	POULTRY
COTTON	SOYBEANS
	OTHER LIVESTOCK OR PRODUCE (Please specify) _____

28. Is your home located on your farm property?

- a. NO
- b. YES

29. What was the total family income from all sources during the past 12 months?

- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| a. LESS THAN \$5,000 | g. \$30,000 TO \$34,999 |
| b. \$5,000 TO \$9,999 | h. \$35,000 TO \$39,999 |
| c. \$10,000 TO \$14,999 | i. \$40,000 TO \$49,999 |
| d. \$15,000 TO \$19,999 | j. \$50,000 TO \$59,999 |
| e. \$20,000 TO \$24,999 | k. \$60,000 TO \$69,999 |
| f. \$25,000 TO \$29,999 | l. \$70,000 TO \$79,999 |
| | m. \$80,000 TO \$89,999 |
| | n. \$90,000 TO \$99,999 |
| | o. \$100,000 OR MORE |

30. Is there anything else you would like to tell us about crime problems or crime prevention in your community?
If so, please use this space.

IF YOU WISH TO RECEIVE A SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS OF THIS STUDY, PLEASE CHECK HERE:

PLEASE RETURN THE QUESTIONNAIRE IN THE ENCLOSED POSTAGE-FREE ENVELOPE TO:

CRIME IN LOUISIANA SURVEY
Department of Rural Sociology
Louisiana Agricultural Experiment Station
Louisiana State University Agricultural Center
126 Stubbs Hall
Baton Rouge, Louisiana 70803-5466

IF YOU HAVE ANY QUESTIONS ABOUT THIS SURVEY, PLEASE CALL DR. WILLIAM BANKSTON AT (504) 388-5312 OR DR. QUENTIN JENKINS AT (504) 388-1119, OR WRITE THEM USING THE ABOVE ADDRESS.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE.

APPENDIX B

MEASUREMENT OF VARIABLES

3. At one time or another, most of us have experienced fear about becoming the victim of a crime. Below is a list of different types of crime. We are interested in how afraid YOU are about becoming the victim of each type of crime in your everyday life during the next 12 months. Please circle the response which best describes your fear about the crime.

	NOT AFRAID	SOMEWHAT AFRAID	VERY AFRAID
a. Having someone break into your home while you're away	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
b. Being raped	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
c. Being hit by a drunken driver while driving your car	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
d. Having someone break into your home while you're home	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
e. Having something taken from you by force	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
f. Having strangers loiter near your home late at night	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
g. Being threatened with a knife, club, or gun	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
h. Having a group of juveniles disturb the peace near your home	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
i. Being beaten up by a stranger	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
j. Being murdered	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
k. Having your car stolen	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
l. Being cheated or conned out of your money	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
m. Being approached by people begging for money	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
n. Receiving an obscene phone call ..	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
o. Being sold contaminated food	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
p. Being beaten up by someone you know	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY
q. Having someone illegally trespass on your property	NOT	SOMEWHAT	VERY

APPENDIX C

**COMMUNALITY, EIGEN VALUES, PERCENT OF VARIATION
AND CUMULATIVE PERCENT FOR FACTOR ANALYSIS
OF FEAR OF 15 SPECIFIC OFFENSES FOR MALES**

Table 1 con't. Communalities scores for factor analysis of 15 specific offenses for females.

OFFENSES	COMMUNALITY
Having someone break into your home while you're away.....	.35438
Being hit by a drunken driver while driving your car.....	.43015
Having someone break into your home while you're away.....	.71351
Having something taken from you by force.....	.74933
Having strangers loiter near your home late at night.....	.76632
Being threatened with a knife, club, or gun.....	.89237
Having a group of juveniles disturb the peace near your home.....	.78231
Being beaten up by a stranger....	.75184
Being murdered.....	.72062
Having your car stolen.....	.77607
Being cheated or conned out of your money.....	.84631
Being approached by people begging for money.....	.81580
Receiving an obscene phone call...	.79386
Being sold contaminated food.....	.71472
Being beaten up by someone you know.....	.79199

Table 1 con't. Final eigen values, percent of variation and cumulative percent.

	<u>Eigen Value</u>	<u>Pct. of Var.</u>	<u>Cum. Pct.</u>
Factor 1	<u>8.66337</u>	<u>57.8</u>	<u>57.8</u>
Factor 2	<u>2.23621</u>	<u>14.9</u>	<u>72.7</u>

APPENDIX D

**COMMUNALITY, EIGEN VALUES, PERCENT OF VARIATION
AND CUMULATIVE PERCENT FOR FACTOR ANALYSIS
OF FEAR OF 15 SPECIFIC OFFENSES FOR FEMALES**

Table 2 con't. Communalities scores for factor analysis of 15 specific offenses for males.

OFFENSES	COMMUNALITY
Having someone break into your home while you're away.....	.32519
Being hit by a drunken driver while driving your car.....	.50987
Having someone break into your home while you're away.....	.77761
Having something taken from you by force.....	.76849
Having strangers loiter near your home late at night.....	.83463
Being threatened with a knife, club, or gun.....	.77142
Having a group of juveniles disturb the peace near your home.....	.80470
Being beaten up by a stranger....	.81984
Being murdered.....	.76953
Having your car stolen.....	.68909
Being cheated or conned out of your money.....	.80505
Being approached by people begging for money.....	.78277
Receiving an obscene phone call...	.74172
Being sold contaminated food.....	.74587
Being beaten up by someone you know.....	.78838

Table 2 con't. Final eigen values, percent of variation and cumulative percent.

	<u>Eigen Value</u>	<u>Pct. of Var.</u>	<u>Cum. Pct.</u>
Factor 1	8.80024	58.7	58.7
Factor 2	2.13391	14.2	72.9

APPENDIX E

**COMMUNALITY, EIGEN VALUES, PERCENT OF VARIATION
AND CUMULATIVE PERCENT FOR FACTOR ANALYSIS
OF FEAR OF 15 SPECIFIC OFFENSES**

Table 3 con't. Communalities scores for factor analysis of 15 specific offenses.

OFFENSES	COMMUNALITY
Having someone break into your home while you're away.....	.35647
Being hit by a drunken driver while driving your car.....	.49612
Having someone break into your home while you're away.....	.76741
Having something taken from you by force.....	.77232
Having strangers loiter near your home late at night.....	.82553
Being threatened with a knife, club, or gun.....	.83847
Having a group of juveniles disturb the peace near your home.....	.81460
Being beaten up by a stranger....	.80973
Being murdered.....	.74779
Having your car stolen.....	.73244
Being cheated or conned out of your money.....	.83485
Being approached by people begging for money.....	.81613
Receiving an obscene phone call...	.77724
Being sold contaminated food.....	.75600
Being beaten up by someone you know.....	.80969

Table 3 con't. Final eigen values, percent of variation and cumulative percent.

	<u>Eigen Value</u>	<u>Pct. of Var.</u>	<u>Cum. Pct.</u>
Factor 1	<u>7.79617</u>	<u>52.0</u>	<u>52.0</u>
Factor 2	<u>2.08246</u>	<u>13.9</u>	<u>65.9</u>

APPENDIX F

**VARIMAX ROTATION FOR FACTOR 2
COMMUNALITY SCORES FOR FACTOR 2
ROTATION-CRIMES WE FEAR**

Varimax rotated factor matrix of Factor 2, crimes we fear,
derived from the initial factoring.

CRIMES OF FEAR	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2
Having someone break into your home while your away.....	.59837	
Being hit by a drunken driver while driving your car.....	.69622	
Having someone break into your home while you're home.....	.86401	
Having something taken from you by force.....	.87644	
Being murdered.....	.85311	

Communality scores for factor analysis of 5 specific offenses.

OFFENSES	COMMUNALITY
Having someone break into your home while you're away.....	.35805
Being hit by a drunken driver while driving your car.....	.48472
Having someone break into your home while you're away.....	.74651
Having something taken from you by force.....	.76814
Being murdered.....	.72779

CURRICULUM VITAE

Cheryl L. Thayer-Doyle	Department of Sociology
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Home: (601) 362-1447 (MS)	

EDUCATION:

Ph.D. 1986 Department of Sociology, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, LA
General Exam: Completed August 8, 1985
Dissertation: Fear of Crime and Women :
An Analysis of a Paradox
MINOR: Social Work Administration, School of Social Work, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, LA

M.S. 1976 Department of Sociology, Utah State University, Logan, UT

B.A. 1972 Department of Sociology/Anthropology, Doane College, Crete, NE

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE:

1984 - Research Assistant, Department of Rural Sociology, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana

1983 - 1984 Teaching Assistant, Department of Sociology, Baton Rouge, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana

1980 - 1982 Chair, Department of Sociology, Tougaloo College.
Acting Director, Gerontology Training Program. Responsible for the overall administration of the project.

1982 - 1984 Director, Fixed Income Consumer Counseling. I was responsible for the overall administration of the project.

1982 - 1983 Consultant, St. Joseph's High School. Assisted in the development and implementation of a gerontology curriculum.

1979 - 1980 Assistant Director and Practicum
Coordinator, Gerontology

1982 - 1983 Training Program in the Department of
Sociology, Tougaloo College. In this
capacity, I was responsible for budget
expenditures, the internship program and
placements, program evaluation and some
community relations work, as well as some
correspondences to the Administration on
Aging.

1980 Consultant, Education Department, Jackson
State University.

1978 - 1983 Instructor, Department of Sociology,
Tougaloo College, Tougaloo, Mississippi.

1977 - 1978 Instructor, Department of Social Sciences,
Mohawk Valley Community College. This job
involved teaching Introductory Sociology,
Sociology of Institutions (family, education
and religion), and Social Problems.

1977 - 1978 Instructor, Continuing Education, Department
of Social Sciences, Mohawk Valley Community
College. The job involved teaching evening,
adult education students a basic social
science.

COURSES TAUGHT:

Gerontology	Deviance	Gerontology Practicum
Cultural Anthropology	Social Problems	Marriage & Family
Intro. to Sociology	Senior Seminar	Social Science Sem.
Theory	Social Psychology	Race & Ethnic Rel.

FUNDED GRANTS:

Co-authored the Gerontology Training Program funded in 1983
by the AOA. (\$100,000)

Co-authored a research grant funded in 1982 by the United
Negro College Fund to study the Career Aspirations of
Black Students in three Mississippi high schools.
(\$50,000)

Co-authored and served as the Project Director of the Fixed
Income Consumer

Counseling Grant -- Funded January 1982. (\$50,000)

Co-authored VISTA proposal -- Funded February 1982.
(\$50,000)

Co-authored the Gerontology Certificate Program funded by
the Administration on Aging in 1979 for a
three-year period. (\$180,000)

Assisted with the Urban Studies Grant funded by the Lilly
Foundation in 1979.

PAPERS:

Thayer, Cheryl L.

1975 "Availability and Perceived Adequacy of Health
Services in Utah." Master's Thesis, Utah State
University, Logan, Utah.

1978 "When Women Say No, Do They Really Mean Yes?
Male-Female Differences in Changing Attitudes
Toward Premarital Sexual Permissiveness."
Alpha Kappa Delta Symposium, Richmond,
Virginia.

Thayer-Doyle, Cheryl L. and George Smith.

1981 "Stay at Home! Channeling an Alternative to
Long Term Care." Mississippi Mini-White House
Conference on Aging, Jackson, Mississippi.

Thayer-Doyle, Cheryl.

1982 "Development, Implementation and Supervision of
Internships." Mississippi-Alabama Sociological
Association Meeting, Starkville, Mississippi.

1984 "Corporate Illegality and Cultural Vocabularies
of Accountability: A Theory of Corporate
Non-responsibility." Mid-South Sociological
Association, Monroe, Louisiana.

Bankston, W. B., Q. A. L. Jenkins, C. L. Thayer-Doyle and
C. Y. Thompson.

1985a "Community Size, Rurality, and Fear of Crime in
a Southern State: A Multivariate Analysis.
Southern Association of Agricultural Scientists,
Biloxi, Mississippi.

1985b "Fear of the Drunk Driver: An Exploratory
Analysis of an Emergent Social Problem."
Southwestern Sociological Society, Houston,
Texas.

1985c "Fear of Victimization: Another Look at
Proximate Causes." Rural Sociological Society,
Blacksburg, Virginia.

Thayer-Doyle, C. L., and M. Becker Bihm.
 1985 "Bulimia: Gluttony, Innovation and Conformity."
 Mid-South Sociological Association, Little
 Rock, Arkansas.

Thayer-Doyle, C. L., and Q. Jenkins
 1986 "The Use of Key Informants in Rural,
 Non-American Settings." Southwestern Social
 Science Meetings, San Antonio, Texas.

Thayer-Doyle, C.L., C.Y. Thompson, W.B. Bankston, and Q.A.L.
 Jenkins
 1986 "Single, Female Headed Households, Handgun
 Ownership, and Fear of Crime." Southern
 Sociological Society Meeting. New Orleans,
 Louisiana.

PUBLICATIONS:

Bankston, W., Q. A. L. Jenkins, C. L. Thayer-Doyle, and
 C. Y. Thompson.
 1986 "Fear of the Drunk Driver: An Emergent Social
 Problem." Deviant Behavior, Vol. 7, No. 2,
 Forthcoming.

PAPERS UNDER REVISION FOR PUBLICATION:

Bankston, W., Q. A. L. Jenkins, C. L. Thayer-Doyle, and
 C. Y. Thompson.
 1986 "Fear of Criminal Victimization and Residential
 Location." Reviewed by Rural Sociology and
 under revision for resubmission.

PAPERS UNDER REVIEW FOR PUBLICATION:

Thompson, C.Y., W.B. Bankston, C.L. Thayer-Doyle and Q.A.L.
 Jenkins
 1986 "Single, Female Headed Households, Handgun
 Possession and Fear of Rape."

PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES:

Chairperson, Executive Committee, Southwestern Student
Honors Program 1986-87

Alpha Kappa Delta Honorary Sociological Society, President,
Beta Chapter (1984-1986)

Book Review: Rural Sociology 48:3 (Fall) 1984

Reviewer for Rural Sociology

Organizer for Student Honors Program for the Southwestern
Sociological Association

MEMBERSHIPS:

Alpha Kappa Delta Honorary Sociological Society, Beta
Chapter

Mid-South Sociological Society

Gamma Sigma Delta, Agriculture Honor Society

Southwestern Sociological Association

Southern Sociological Society

DOCTORAL EXAMINATION AND DISSERTATION REPORT

Candidate: Cheryl L. Thayer-Doyle

Major Field: Sociology

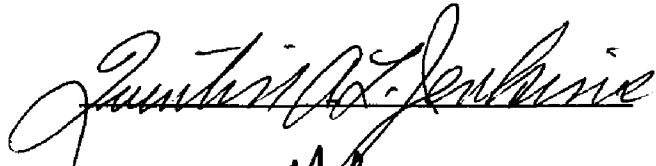

Title of Dissertation: Fear of Crime and Women: An Analysis of a Paradox

Approved:

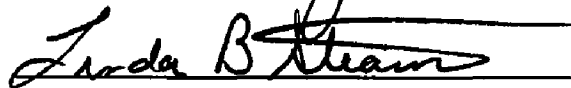

Major Professor and Chairman

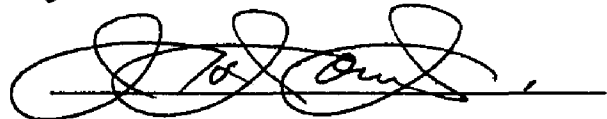

Dean of the Graduate School

EXAMINING COMMITTEE:







Date of Examination: 11/12/86